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HUNT'S

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE

AND

COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

OCTOBER, 1856.

Art. I.—QUARANTINE.

THE rigid and isolating measures of ignorance and coercion in endeavoring to put a stop to epidemics, have always increased their virulence and added to their expansion, while a careful and humane attention to the wants and miseries of the sick has contributed to both the prevention and spread of disease, and to its speedy termination. The most ancient physicians, even as early as the sixth century, argued that epidemics did not spread by contact; they were therefore opposed to isolating the sick, and supported the principles of humanity inculcated in the constant care of the diseased by the healthy, as not only the most effectual means of curing sickness, but as being equally efficacious in preventing its extension. The experience of all ages accords with these most ancient views.

Quarantine originated with the great epidemics of the fourteenth century. It derives its name from the last or fortieth critical day, according to that age of medicine when the course of "ardent" diseases was thought to be marked by particular crises.

Hecker, a believer in the benefits of quarantine, informs us that the first regulation which was issued for this purpose originated with Viscount Bernabo, and is dated the 17th January, 1374. Every plague-patient was to be taken out of the city into the fields, and there to die or recover. Those who attended upon a plague-patient were to remain apart for ten days before they again associated with any one. The priests were to examine the diseased, and point out to special commissioners the persons infected, under punishment of confiscation of their goods, and of being burned alive. Whoever imported the plague, the State condemned his goods to confiscation.

Finally, none except those appointed for the purpose were to attend plague-patients, under penalty of death and confiscation. In 1383 the same prince forbade the admission of people from infected places into his dominions, on pain of death. Bernabo's example was imitated in numerous places during his lifetime, and enforced with all the spirit of the age. An individual, whose human kindness exposed him to even the last look of sympathy from a dear departing one, was shunned with hideous terror, forced into seclusion, or burned to death by the stern executioners of the law.

Yet "Black Death" reigned with unprecedented sway. The southern commercial States of Europe strictly enforced, with the wildest fanaticism, the severest laws of quarantine, and their commercial cities were almost closed against navigators, for fear of the importation of plague, as they professed in most cases to trace its outbreak to the arrival of some ship. In 1347 it was said to have been imported into Genoa by ships from the Levant; on this account suspected ships were forbade entrance into their ports, and consequently sailed to Pisa and other cities on the coast, where plague likewise prevailed, and was likewise attributed to importation by ships.

In the latter part of the fifteenth century—when plague and the severest quarantine laws were prevailing together with an unheard-of vigor and fatality—a special council of health was established in Venice for the prevention of its entrance there; but scarcely had the force of their strictures been realized ere they were followed by a plague so severe as to create a suicidal frenzy, rather than fall victims to the plague, or its alternative, the quarantine. In its progress, every human barrier seemed to add fuel to its terrible ravages; one fled from another—a neighbor from his neighbors—a relation from his relations—terror took the place of every kindly emotion—brother forsook brother, sister the sister, the wife her husband, the mother her child! Each and all abandoned, unvisited, uncared-for, unsoothed—quarantined!

Bills of health were probably first introduced in Italy during the prevalence of plague about the year 1527, though Lazaretto had been established some forty years before. These were usually upon islands at a distance from cities, where all persons coming from places suspected of plague were detained, in conjunction with the sick, under a strict guard. If the disease appeared in the city itself, the sick (with their families) were dispatched to the old Lazaretto, where they were to remain, with all those who had intercourse with them, till cured—or until, what was much more frequently the case, they died; then they were transferred to the new Lazaretto, situated on another island, where they were detained forty days longer. In this way Venice was the pioneer "council of health." Other commercial cities followed the Venetians, and about the year 1665, bills of health had become general.

Defoe, in his "History of the Plague in London in 1665," who, though like Hecker, believed plague to be contagious, fully shows that the terrible horrors of quarantine were, nevertheless, even worse than the plague itself:—

"A whole family was shut up and locked in, because the maid-servant was taken sick; these people obtained no liberty to stir, neither for aid nor exercise, for forty days; want of breath, fear, anger, vexation, and all the other griefs attending such an injurious treatment, cast the mistress of the family into a fever;

and visitors came into the house and said it was the plague, though the physicians declared it was not. However, the family were obliged to begin their quarantine anew, on the report of the visitor or examiner, though their former quarantine wanted but a few days of being finished. This oppressed them so with anger and grief, and, as before, straitened them also so much as to room and for want of breathing and free air, that most of the family fell sick—one of one distemper, one of another, chiefly scorbutic ailments, only one a violent cholic—until, after several prolongations of their confinement, some or other of those that came in with the visitors to inspect the persons that were ill, in hopes of releasing them, brought the distemper along with them, and infected the whole house, and all or most of them died, not of the plague as really upon them before, but of the plague that those people brought them who should have been careful to have protected them from it; and this was a thing which frequently happened, and was indeed one of the worst consequences of shutting houses up."

Watchmen were placed at the doors of the sick to prevent escape, and the passer-by shuddered when he looked up and saw the fatal mark of isolation on the door—a large red cross painted on the door, written over, "Lord, have mercy upon us!" This merciless imprisonment was pursued with a heartless obduracy engendered by the belief that it was the only means of averting death to those who inflicted it. The same historian records the noble deeds of some of the health officers and some country people, who constantly sought out the suffering, procured and carried them food, and such "very seldom got any harm by it," and were therefore deemed to have been miraculously preserved; while hundreds and thousands of those who fled, died in their flight. "They had the taint of the disease in their vitals, and after their spirits were so diseased, they could never escape it."

And thus prevailed the epidemic of quarantine, with its attendant symptoms of terror, starvation, and suicidal mania, "until it was impossible to beat anything into their heads, (convince them;) they gave way to the impetuosity of their tempers, full of outcries and lamentations when taken, but madly careless of themselves, fool-hardy and obstinate while they were well. Where they could get employment, they pushed into any kind of business, the most dangerous and the most liable to infection; and if they were spoken to, their answer would be, 'I must trust to God for that—if I am taken, then I am provided for, and there is an end of me.' 'Why, what must I do? I cannot starve; I had as good have the plague as perish for want; I have no work, what could I do? I must do this or beg.' Burying the dead, attending the sick, or watching the infected, their tale was the same." Many such were "miraculously preserved," and as their number increased, whether by defiance of quarantine or self-sacrificing humanity, the epidemic declined.

The plague broke out in Leghorn about the beginning of the present century, unattended by the incidental arrival of any ship or importation to which it could be assigned. Finally, it was traced to a mummy which some scientific men had unrolled for examination. On this the contagionists rested, though it had been locked up for a period of over two thousand years!

Ingram, an English writer on plague about the middle of the last century, records that—

"If in the sultry months we examine into the diseases of Newgate, the Savoy, or any of the jails in England, or those of other cities in Europe, we shall find a pestilential disease every year in them, though not so malignant as the pestilence

in sultry climes, nor of so long continuance, yet sufficient to destroy many of the prisoners. And this disease is also contagious, because it takes its origin from putrid air. Mariners also, in long voyages, especially those that belong to the navy, frequently too have felt the experience, not so much from the coarse diet, as from the ships being crowded from such numbers of men, from whose breath and bodies arise hot steams, which shows the necessity of ventilators to draw forth the corrupted air, and at the same time to refresh them with better. The breaths of people confined a short time will destroy themselves, as about nine years ago, in St. Martin's prison, many being close shut up, some died in a few hours.

"Such like epidemics are not confined to jails, navies, or camps, but they are almost yearly felt in many cities, and sometimes they are so virulent even as to be contagious, terminating in carbuncles, one of the true symptoms of the plague; so that we may affirm that every year we are afflicted with the plague, in a milder degree than those cities which lie in southern latitudes."

This concise statement of contagion and its cause is worth more than all the volumes that have ever been written on it, for a proper appreciation of the nature of epidemic contagion.

Plague has thus lengthily been dwelt upon, because it has usually been considered among the most contagious of epidemic diseases. When cholera broke out in 1832, the measures of isolation were begun with the same vigor as characterized the quarantine of plague, centuries before. Attempts to isolate the sick and intercept their intercourse with the well, were set about with an alacrity only surpassed by the alertness of the disease. Calling out troops or a strong body of police around infected places was even talked of, as one means of staying its progress. Proposals for locking up infected houses and dropping food at the doors, which was to be taken in by ingenious machines to be worked by the collapsed patients, were discussed as of more importance than the uncleaned gutters and lanes flanked by dark, airless abodes, on which the sun had never shone. Illy-ventilated emigrant ships were detained at quarantine stations, or their passengers transferred to the devitalized air of hospitals to await its ravages.

Yellow fever has been no less the subject of quarantine, and innumerable are the cases of mild intermittents, which would have speedily been eliminated with the privilege of pure air, doomed to black-vomit by quarantine detention.

The haunts of deadly reptiles are not more peculiar to their localities, than are the equally native diseases nourished and propagated by causes in proportion to their abundance.

The most favorable comparison of the advancement of human science is, that the benefits it has conferred on mankind are entirely consistent with such arrangement of the elements of the universe, that wherever there is an evil arising, an all-wise Providence has endowed man with the means, through the exercise of wisdom and virtue, of overcoming it. "If there be in the land famine; if there be pestilence, blasting, mildew, locust; or if there be caterpillar; if their enemy besiege them in the land of their cities; whatsoever plague, whatsoever sickness there be,"—from the plagues which Pharaoh so stubbornly resisted, to the latter part of the last century—

"Hypochondriac fancies represent
Ships, armies, battles, in the firmament,
Till steady eyes the exhalations solve,
And all to its first matter cloud resolve."

Animal and vegetable decomposition, dwellings without provision for light and fresh air, filth and vermin, were then, as they are now, beneath the notice of the ignorant and uneducated, while they can grasp at comets, meteors, and earthquakes.

In early ages, before agriculture became general, epidemics were of much more frequent occurrence wherever large bodies of men were gathered together, than they are at this day. The soil was everywhere covered with animal and vegetable matter in such abundance as to absorb the greatest possible amount of moisture, in order to its decomposition, the going on of which, whenever temperature favored, evolved the cause of disease to such an extraordinary degree as to be followed by effects which we are now taught to appreciate, by confining our observations to such conditions as comprehend the same circumstances.

The differences in epidemics, though they all pertain to the same general causes, arise from the development of organic matters with different properties, depending upon particular conditions connected with local circumstances and constitutional tendencies. That such is the case, may be deduced from the specific effect of certain medicines, food, and drink, as well as the circumscribed limits of some epidemics. The most deadly epidemics of ancient times are usually characterized by the numbers they destroyed, and it is only by studying the history of cotemporary circumstances that we can approach the true causes and nature of them. The "hot, burning boils and blains, breaking forth into pustules and corroding sores upon man and upon beast," as signified by the blistering ashes from the furnace, is no unfit emblem of smallpox; and that a grievous hail, inundation, drought, heat, and famine, were followed by a pestilence, which arose at midnight and attacked with characteristic severity the wealthy and luxurious Egyptians who resided on the banks of the Nile, is but a faint illustration of the effect of the same causes whenever and wherever they exist.

Epidemic is a word used to designate that character of a disease which attacks a large number of individuals at the same time.

Endemic is an epidemic confined to a particular place—as goitre and cretenism in the Alps, cholera in the delta of the Ganges, plague in the delta of the Nile, and yellow fever in the delta of the Mississippi. An endemic that leaves its place of usual prevalence, as cholera has most frequently of late years, becomes a true epidemic. There is no difference in the disease; epidemic and endemic are the same—only one, epidemic, is general, and the other, endemic, is local.

Infectious diseases are those produced by a vitiated state of the atmosphere, a condition always owing to the want of free access of pure air and light, the which, were they constantly present, would wholly do away with infection. Persons in health may be kept in confined air until it becomes vitiated and infectious to themselves, and consequently they may become poisoned and killed by it; and such air will affect alike one or many individuals who may be exposed to it, whether the infection has arisen from the deadly effect of too close confinement of diseased or (to begin with) healthy individuals.

Epidemic, endemic, and infectious diseases are uncertain in their development from the time of exposure to the time of attack; disease may occur very soon—immediately—or it may not for months.

Contagious diseases are those epidemics which at first arise from the

same common causes as others, but which are afterwards communicable from one individual to another by contact or such immediate vicinity as to be subject to respiring the same air. They differ from infectious diseases in the specific time or certain period of incubation, from the time of exposure to the time of attack. The poison in these contagious diseases requires a particular and certain period for development, which, no matter how concentrated it may be when taken into the system, rarely or never produces disease within certain limits of time. They run a regular course of development, maturity, and decline, and are not subject to relapse nor recurrence. Exceptions to this distinction are extremely rare. Contagious diseases are always epidemic, though epidemics are not necessarily contagious.

Epidemic is the one quality which all alike possess. Epidemic is the GENUS; endemic, infectious, and contagious are *species*.

The germ of all epidemic diseases consists in the introduction of an organic poison into the circulation. A poison circulating and multiplying itself in the blood is fully adequate for the production of local peculiarities as applied to individuals or atmospheric conditions, and is equally the cause of cholera in one or ship-fever in another, so that whatever may be the cause of either is equally the cause of both. A French author relates that twenty-eight soldiers were working in a marshy and insalubrious place in Saint Louis. They were all taken sick; three died of cholera morbus, five of bilious dysentery, four with yellow fever. The others were affected with the worst form (perniciouse) of intermittent fever. In ancient times, when plagues and pestilences were much more common, and men's minds were more clouded with superstition, the visitations of epidemics were reckoned the immediate effect of Divine vengeance, and their natural causes were not inquired into. But later, all epidemic putrid diseases were said to derive their origin from unknown qualities of the atmosphere, and these qualities were attempted to be rectified by large fires of aromatic substances, but as such efforts were rarely or never followed by any good effects, it at last became doubtful with some whether any such malignant qualities ever existed, and as they could not detect them it was insisted upon that no state of the atmosphere had any influence in producing disease. While, on the other hand, some contended that the malignancy of the atmosphere was the origin of every disease for which no other cause could be assigned. Notwithstanding a warm and humid state of the atmosphere generally precedes epidemics, and that the same disease generally prevails endemically in localities favoring such a condition, there is nevertheless good reason to believe that it rarely does more than predispose the system to the reception of the poison which is developed by the same state, and which, when applied, produces the disease. The humidity causes the noxious qualities of the inješta to be retained in the circulation, which results in disease, but the poison is *not that* humidity, it is an organic one, which under favorable circumstances would be wholly eliminated.

Volatile conclusions, deduced from *gaseous* and *vaporous* emanations as generally the causes of disease and weakly constitutions, are mere assumptions, without the remotest evidence; for, admitting that contagious matter may exist in the atmosphere, it is utterly impossible for a gas to remain permanent in the air. It would be as easy for a body of fresh water to endure amid the ocean. *All* gaseous emanations must of necessity disperse

in proportion as they are exposed to the air, which contains within itself the means of purification, slowly but certainly converting all *organic substances, which are the true causes of disease*, exposed to it into simpler forms—gases, watery vapor, carbonic acid, nitric acid and ammonia, whence they cease to be deleterious.

What are the sources of organic poisons?

Animal matter is exhaled from the pulmonary and cutaneous surfaces, and, however small the particles, they are nevertheless organic, possess no elasticity, and have none of the diffusive qualities pertaining to vapors, and therefore only float in the air until decomposed and neutralized by it. Any obstacle, therefore, to the free access of air may develop disease from this source. Every one is familiar with the circumstance that the breath occasionally, and in some persons constantly, emits an offensive odor, which, when it does not proceed from carious teeth, or similar causes immediately exposed to the contact of the respired air, is exhaled with the vapor from the pulmonary surface. This, too, is sometimes suddenly developed when the digestive apparatus is disordered, or under other derangement of health. As a test of its containing organic matter, when it is passed through sulphurous acid that liquid acquires a reddish tint.

The worst epidemics most frequently appear in certain localities in hot climates, and they are generally ascribed to local causes, confined within well-defined limits, so that those who keep beyond them are never affected with the same virulence, even if at all subject to the prevailing type.

From the three great deltas of the world—the Nile, the Ganges and the Mississippi, arise the three great epidemics of modern times, the plague, cholera and yellow-fever, all usually accompanied with, preceded and followed by, milder types of their relatively characteristic symptoms, in a less intense stage of development. This remarkable analogy extends to all the peregrinations of these several manifestations of the same poison, varying only by reason of place and conditions of development as well in intensity as in type.

Stagnation and subsequent evaporation of moisture from the surface of the earth are essential to the development of an epidemic, and the higher the temperature within certain limits at which evaporation takes place, the more violent is the poison generated, and the more fatal is the disease. This is due to the acceleration of putrefaction and decomposition, which goes on fastest at the temperature of about 100° F. Organic poison being once produced or set in motion, however, does not only not require a continued high temperature to keep it in existence, but a cool atmosphere and high winds facilitate both its extension and fatality. This is owing to the increased condensation and circulation of the watery vapor which serves as a carrier of the poison. Hence it is that epidemics in unusual places are frequently much more fatal than when prevailing endemically. This has been specially manifest within the last few weeks at Fort Hamilton, near New York. The poison having been once set in motion, there was an apparent cessation while the weather continued moderate and dry, but succeeding this, an unusual degree of cold, with high winds, gave the disease not only a new impetus as to numbers, but in fatality, surpassing even its greatest malignity in New Orleans and Vera Cruz. The same thing occurred last year in Norfolk. The evaporation of pure water, or the existence of vapor from it alone in the air, in temperate abodes, is rarely or never injurious, and its neighborhood is generally salubrious. It is after

the cessation of the evaporation of pure water from alluvial and diluvial earths that epidemics always take their rise. During and immediately after rainy seasons and inundations, when nothing but pure watery vapor exists in the air, health is but rarely interrupted, but when the surface of the earth begins to dry and the temperature increases to some depth, so that the matters therein contained ferment and decompose, the specific poison is generated, and floating in the air, causes and accelerates disease. If we are living in a highly rarified atmosphere, or amidst exhalations from crowded and badly ventilated apartments, dark and damp streets, sewers, churchyards, vaults, cesspools, slaughter-houses, pounds, stables, piggeries, filth constantly commingling, notwithstanding the wonderful provision of nature for the speedy decomposition and destruction of organic matter, the density of the poison—for vegetable and animal exhalations are equally organic and poisonous—impresses its destructive influence at the outset and continues its deadly action during its transition.

As it is perfectly natural for us to look upon pure air as the greatest possible source of health, it is equally so to regard an impure one as the most extensive cause of disease, and to attribute to it and its various changes from hot to cold, moist to dry, and the various particles which are continually floating in it, many diseases which we cannot otherwise account for. Whatever may be the state of the air, it is an indispensable necessity which can never be done without, for ever so short a time, with the continuance of life. However necessary food, drink and whatever else we make use of, they are only requisite at particular times, but air is necessary every moment of our existence. It is not only in contact with our bodies but it is continually entering into our lungs, and from them passing directly into our blood, pervades every pore, and constitutes an ingredient in every part of our composition.

The quantity of air necessary for healthy respiration can be easily estimated by calculating the amount drawn into the lungs at a single inspiration and during a given time, estimating from fourteen to twenty-two respirations per minute in a state of repose, for the difference in individuals; yet measurement should never be acted upon with reference to due provision. In order to secure a pure atmosphere means of renewal should exist under all circumstances. No amplitude of space, if it is confined, can possibly compensate for the renewal and circulation of the air which are always essential to its purity.

Gibbon says, that "In all ages Ethiopia and Egypt have been stigmatized as the source and seminary of plague. In a damp, hot, stagnant air, the African fever is generated from the putrefaction of animal substances, and especially from the swarms of locusts, not less destructive to mankind in their death than in their life."

The habits of the Egyptians are filthy in the extreme. They live in little damp close-crowded huts, thick with the odors of their own impurities mixed with the heated marshes, and here cook their scanty stale meats and fish over fires made with dried manure. Ignorance, despotism and poverty combine to make them in all respects a degraded people.

The delta of the Nile is a plain of uniform level, and the peasants, in constructing their habitations, make excavations near them to receive the water at the annual inundation. These pits remain stagnant during the interval of hot, dry weather that succeeds the retiring of the Nile, and the myriads of insects in all stages, from their first development to decomposi-

tion, mixed with the thick mould that covers the surface of this water, fortunately render them so repulsive to the sense of smell as to repel the wayfarer before his stomach revolts at the sight of them. Yet it is in these ponds that they perform the daily ablutions enjoined by their religion, and from which they draw all the water they drink and use for cooking purposes! While the almost naked Fallah sows and works in the mud of the rice grounds, his wife and children are usually collecting the material for fuel near their dwellings, and mixing it with the fetid mud from the ponds they mould it with their hands into masses, which they stick on their dwellings to dry; and as if to concentrate the noxious emanations they pile around their huts and villages rubbish of all kinds. Thus inclosed in a focus of corruption, he dresses himself in rags, which seem to answer the double purpose of absorbing the poisonous air that surrounds him, and of retaining the vermin with which he is infested. Wherever there is a mosk a large receptacle of water is provided for ablutions, and here the water is as above described. Hundreds of Mussulmen are collected together into yards from which the waters in which they wash flow into open canals, which terminate in a general reservoir in a public square, usually surrounded by habitations. This receptacle has no outlet, and the ditches to it are never closed nor empty. As the contents overflow they soak into the earth, there to moulder till awakened by the sun's rays in a new form, to retaliate on the miserable creatures who impelled it into being. Cairo is but a magnificent collection of such habits and habitations. A large canal passes through the centre of the city, into which is thrown all manner of carrion, filth and offal. The intolerable stench arising from it only ceases upon the overflowing of the Nile, which washes away this load of filth. Erzeroum, another large town, situated on a peninsula formed by the two northern sources of the Euphrates, where plague rises spontaneously, is equally noted for its intolerable filth.

In the delta of the Ganges, the Hoogly is esteemed by the Hindoos the most sacred branch, and on this account it is consecrated by being made the depository of the dead of such persons as cannot afford to burn their bodies, and this is the home of cholera.

The other delta, of the Mississippi, is not noted for the filthy habits of its inhabitants, but, in common with the other two, it brings down its load of animal and vegetable matter and deposits it over a large extent of soil, which is the most fruitful source of yellow fever on the face of the earth, while there is no one who occupies it but is familiar with the benefits of cleanliness.

In the vast plains of South America, a burning sun operating on the extensive swamps, and the inundations that succeed the rainy seasons, sometimes generate dreadful epidemics. Missionaries have frequent records of the most fatal distempers prevailing among the Indians, which at times desolate whole villages. Small-pox everywhere makes great ravages, as, from want of care united with their filthy habits, very few who are attacked recover from it. The small-pox and malignant fevers which desolate Paraguay are called plagues, on account of the great numbers they destroy. Vancouver accounts of extraordinary desolations from these causes still further north.

Such are, in brief, the conditions the most promotive of epidemics the world over, and what is the action of Christianity and civilization on the experience and learning of the last three centuries?

The origin of quarantine was based upon the contagiousness of epidemic diseases, but the *prime sources* of the "contagion,"—the causes which set the disease in motion, were not considered, and in enforcing the laws for its execution innumerable foci for its propagation were constituted and preserved with an ignorance of this means of dissemination which can only be excused by the then limited extent of scientific investigation. The rigors of quarantine were then enacted and enforced with a full persuasion of the certainty of disease and death to whomsoever might come in communication with persons already affected. Had this been so, had the disease which Viscount Bernabo so vigorously tried to barricade, been as communicable from one person to another as he thought it, it never could have ceased till the whole earth had been depopulated. If the subtle poison which leaped the bounds and escaped through the crevices of the most confined barricades with a continually multiplying strength, had passed along mankind as a common battery of so many jars for an electric current, it never could have ceased so long as a subject remained on the face of the earth. If the number attacked were only as one when one had it, it would have increased in geometrical proportion, and they would have been as ten times ten when ten had it, one hundred times one hundred to a hundred, and so on—a proposition which needs only to be stated to be appreciated. But, besides, even were contagion by contact true, does not the history of every epidemic prove that complete isolation is impracticable, that no strictures, however severe, can control the sympathies and affections of the human soul when thoroughly aroused—that even the penalty of burning alive can not extinguish the spark of human kindness when once enkindled.

Everywhere dense population, misery, want and filth constitute the source as well as the contagion of epidemics, but at this very day, the 1st day of September, 1856, almost in the centre of the largest commercial city in the world, is gathered the detritus of every sickly clime, to be crammed in and crowded round the quarantine of New York! Do the rags of Alexandria—for there has been an infected ship and cargo of them at New York quarantine since June last—grow less "contagious" from the heat, darkness and confinement of the hold of a ship? Do the putrid hides of South America and the goat skins of Cape de Verdes become tanned of their poison by wreaking it on the inhabitants of a populous city? Ay! they do. ONE HUNDRED AND FIFTY OF SUCH SHIPS AND SUCH CARGOES are now surrounded by the bay of New York!

But, alas! for the poor passengers and sailors, they are quarantined; many of them quarantined as are the victims of this relic of barbarism, on the Bay Ridge from Fort Hamilton to Brooklyn.

Yet these ships and these cargoes are now as they would have been centuries ago, they are as the thirty feet deep of slime from the table lands of Abyssinia deposited in the lap of Egypt, as the Hoogly exhaling its putrid remains, or as the gleanings of the Father of Waters, in which crocodiles only can revel,—all, all these things lost sight of in the heartless selfishness which dictates a quarantine for persons—a seclusion of the sick and needy! It is an anomaly in the age of Christianity and civilization. In the midst of free schools, free academies and public charities, we are appalled by an infatuated fanaticism which should only be measured by the ages which gave it birth. Every ennobling sentiment of the human soul revolts with horror at the idea of the seclusion which the enforcers of

quarantine would practice upon one in the time of greatest need. It is adverse to every impulse of sympathy—antagonistic to all the kindly emotions of the heart, it inculcates a beastly selfishness and fratricidal barbarism which has, in the nature of causes, always brought upon the enforcers of it a retributory certainty of infliction with the worst horrors of their imagination, in a degree of concentrated strength proportionate to their efforts to restrain it. The barricaders of black death who were infatuated by the hideous terror of judgments inflicted for secret sins, were in some degree excusable in acts measured by the light of science, but that such inhumanity, such remorseless heartlessness and cowardly selfishness should exist and be tolerated now, is surely the most inconceivable incident of barbarism connected with the present age.

There are at this time agitators for the removal of the New York quarantine from its present site to a greater distance from this city, with the avowed object of effecting a more perfect seclusion of the sick. Surely every individual of common intelligence can now comprehend the practical truth, that pure air is the only real security against epidemics. In all the regulations of quarantine this prime necessity has ever been overlooked; confinement in a foul atmosphere has been the distinguishing feature of sickly ships, quarantine hospitals and lazarettos, in all ages, everywhere; they convert common fevers into pestilence, which, in their attempts to restrain, they oftentimes render contagious, and they are of all others the most concentrated foci of disease. They constantly avert the attention of the public from the true precautionary sanitary measures, under the absurd impression that epidemics can be shut out or barricaded like unwelcome visitors.

It is unnecessary now to state that there is no disease to which mankind is heir, contagious or non-contagious, which may not be aggravated by the infliction of quarantine, and quarantines are necessarily dangerous and disease-producing in proportion to the strictness with which the laws that govern them are enforced. What is the disease which any community would fear from contagion? Small-pox is perhaps the most pre-eminently contagious epidemic that prevails, but can it prevail in any civilized community in the world? Certainly not. The guard against it from contact is perfect by vaccination, which can be made universal without an item of expense to the city or State.

There is no disease compatible with cleanliness which may occur at all, that can be otherwise influenced than aggravated by the quarantine of *persons*.

But of *things*. Well ventilated and cleanly ships rarely or never have to stand quarantine, no matter what their cargo, or port from which they last cleared.

Ships which are built without proper provision for fresh air, overcrowded with passengers, or not kept clean, are those which come into port infected. That a large number of such, congregated together, may prove a fruitful source for epidemics, there is abundant evidence; a prominent exemplification now exists at the New York quarantine. And the spread of disease from them can only be measured by the conditions adequate to its support.

If ships are properly ventilated and kept clean they are the most healthy of human abodes, because they have the freest access of pure air. Ships without proper provision for fresh air sometimes lie for long periods in

sickly harbors and take in such cargoes as may render it impossible to prevent their accumulating the seeds of disease; others take on board loads of human beings with closely packed clothing and rubbish, frequently from the vilest dens of corruption; and others are freighted with filthy rags, hides, &c., liable to contain infection to begin with, and sure to generate it if not exposed to the free access of air, which will multiply and break forth with violence commensurate with the conditions which favor it. On arrival, the practice of quarantine is—if any one on board is sick of an infectious disease, not only to detain such one on board to continue inhaling the poison which is destroying life, but to detain all the rest, likewise, till they are also poisoned—the alternative to this is the quarantine hospital, to be surrounded by misery in order to alleviate it! Nor does it end here; the ship and cargo of poison is anchored in the midst of a populous community for the exhalations which arise from her hold to poison the air they breathe,—disease and death thus stabbing in the dark, while the victim is under a false sense of security, from the traitor which he has nourished in his bosom.

Can any one now survey the quarantine ground and harbor of New York—and other quarantines are just as bad—and view the crape-clad mansions which border the finest bay in the world, without revolting from his inmost soul against quarantines?

But what should be done with infected ships and cargoes; the infected THINGS which entail disease and death? The principles of economy alone will dictate a ready reply. Let storehouses be erected, with proper provision for security and the admission of free air—nature's great disinfector—at a sufficient distance from the city, and there let every infected ship be at once unladen, and the ship ventilated and permitted to go to sea again.

And of *persons*; would any one, *can* any one, apply quarantine to himself, and say, seclude them from all human sympathy, from the tender look, the gentle hand, the—

No! never! *Persons* communicate no infection—*carry* no epidemics. Banish the very name of quarantine as applied to them, and require that they only be detained, when necessary, long enough to secure cleanliness, and prohibit the taking of clothing, baggage and the like, which has been subject to infection, till it is cleansed and purified.

Things and not *persons* cause and propagate disease.

Art. II.—WESTWARD SCIENCE IN AMERICA.

THE swallow travels, and the bee builds now, as these creatures of instinct traveled and built in the days of Moses and Job; but the capabilities and acquisitions of rational man are all progressive, not only as an individual, from infancy to age, but as a species from the beginning to the end of time. This is shown by every art which man has invented and in every science he has employed. Let us proceed to open up more specifically this illustrative department of our general theme, and consider the three-fold advantages,—political, mechanical and educational—which the age of Washington permits us to enjoy.

The science of government, as practiced in this country, is undoubtedly constructed on the loftiest principles of common sense, and constitutes the best model and most salutary protection to each subordinate department of productive thought. Here the division of labor has been carried to the greatest extent, not only in the deliberative, but in the executive departments; and progress is steadily pursued without attempting to anticipate results either by springing forward after crude theories or backward in attempts to copy extinct forms. Our view of liberty differs essentially from that held by the ancients. By the latter, citizenship was regarded as the highest phase of humanity, and man, as a political being, could rise no higher than to membership in a State; therefore it was that Aristotle affirmed the State to be before the individual. But with us the State, and consequently the citizenship, only affords the means of obtaining still higher objects, the fullest possible development of human faculties both in this world and in that which is to come.

The science of freedom, which is destined to spread its irresistible empire over this continent, started its primary germ in the bosom of our antipodes. Long before the words people, law, equality, independence and equitable legislation had found a place in refined languages, republicanism glowed in the mind of Moses, and was partially embodied in the Hebrew commonwealth. The safeguard of all races as they were propagated, and the ennobler of all thoughts as they were colonized, this blessing of blessings has ever migrated with advancing humanity from age to age, till at length a fitting field has been attained for its fullest and most fruitful development.

Heeren well observes that Greece may be considered as "a sample paper of free commonwealths." But even that renowned land never saw her people enjoy their just rights; nor was such an exalted privilege realized by the nations of continental Europe, until the great principle of popular consent was recognized as the foundation of righteous authority. The crusades broke down feudalism, and elective monarchies grew increasingly representative of the popular will, up to the transition period, when James II. was hurled from his tyrannical throne, and William of Orange became the people's king. All the best political science of the old world went with the latter from the comparatively free Netherlands, to ameliorate England, and foster her colonies in America. The essence of the great revolution of 1688 was eminently pacific and progressive, occasioning no sacking of towns nor shedding of blood. According to Macaulay, it announced that the strife between the popular element and the despotic element in the government, which had lasted so long, and been so prolific

in seditions, rebellions, plots, battles, sieges, impeachments, proscriptions, and judicial murders, was at an end ; and that the former, having at length fairly triumphed over the latter, was thenceforth to be permitted freely to develop itself, and become predominant in the English polity.

In tracing kindred paths of human progress, we have constantly had occasion to note how the affairs of all consecutive ages, though produced immediately by the voluntary agency of diversified actors, have, nevertheless, been controlled by the divine counsel, and contributed to execute the perfected unity of the divine plan. How great and manifold were the purposes which Providence comprehended in the discovery of America, and the peculiar colonies planted on its shores, we need not attempt to portray. But it is impossible to doubt that prominent among these were improvements in the science of government, the evolution of new theories of civil polity, and a grander application of such principles as had already been made known.

As a new world was about to be civilized, and required the highest measure of free intelligence, Bacon, Harrington, Sidney, Milton, Locke, Grotious, Puffendorf and Montesquieu, arose to pour successive shafts of light upon the new but sombre skies. Parental injustice and colonial strife for a while darkened earth and heaven ; but in due time the sun of American freedom ascended with auspicious splendor, when the mists of prejudice was dispersed and the fresh revelations of a new political science appeared like some glorious landscape, amid clear shining after rain. All the brightest beamings of antecedent light fell concentrated in that ray which illumined the cabin of the Mayflower, and kindled the fairest beacon of freedom on the eastern extremity of our continent. It was an effulgence given to be thenceforth diffused westward evermore, often buffeted, indeed, by adverse elements, but never impeded in its predominating progress, and much less diminished or obscured.

Before the pilgrim fathers disembarked, on the 11th of November, 1620, off Cape Cod, they drew up and subscribed a formal social compact, from which is the following extract : " We, whose names are under-written * * * do, by these presents, solemnly and mutually, in the presence of God, and of one another, covenant and combine ourselves together into a civil body politic, * * * and by virtue hereof, to enact, constitute and frame such just and equal laws, ordinances, acts, constitutions, offices, from time to time, as shall be thought most meet and convenient for the general good of the colony ; unto which we promise all due submission and obedience. In witness whereof we have hereunder subscribed our names." To this remarkable document were appended the names of all the male adults on board the ship ; the whole number of both sexes being a hundred and one, who took possession of a desert island, where day now first dawns on the sublimest republic of earth.

According to an Eastern fable the world is a harp. Its strings are earth, air, fire, flood, life, death and wind. At certain intervals an angel, flying through the heavens, strikes the harp. Its vibrations are those mighty issues of good and evil, the great epochs which mark the destiny of our race. In allusion to this, E. C. Wines remarks : " The mystic harp was touched when the pilgrims set foot on Plymouth Rock. Its quivering strings discoursed their most eloquent music. The burden of the notes was human freedom, human brotherhood, human rights, the sovereignty of the people, the supremacy of law over will, the divine right of man to

govern himself. The strain is still prolonged in vibrations of ever-widening circuit. That was an era of eras. Its influence, vitalized by the American Union, is fast becoming paramount throughout the civilized world. Europe feels it at this very moment to her utmost extremities, in every sense, in every fiber, in every pulsation of her convulsed and struggling energies.

"The great birth of that era is practical liberty; liberty based on the principles of the Gospel; liberty fashioned into symmetry and beauty and strength by the molding power of Christianity; liberty which 'places sovereignty in the hands of the people, and then sends them to the Bible that they may learn how to wear the crown.' And what a birth! Already is the infant grown into a giant. Liberty, as it exists among us, that is, secured by constitutional guaranties, impregnated with Gospel principles, and freed from alliance with royalty, has raised this country from colonial bondage and insignificance to the rank of a leading power among the governments of earth.

"The union of these States under one government, effected by our national Constitution, has given to America a career unparalleled in the annals of time for rapidity and brilliancy. Her three millions of people have swelled, in little more than half a century, to twenty-five millions. Her one million square miles have expanded into nearly four millions. Her thirteen States have grown into thirty-one. Her navigation and commerce rival those of the oldest and most commercial nations. Her keels vex all waters. Her maritime means and maritime power are seen on all seas and oceans, lakes and rivers. Her inventive genius has given to the world the two greatest achievements of human ingenuity, in the steamboat and the electric telegraph. Two thousand steamers ply her waters; twenty thousand miles of magnetic wires form a net-work over her soil. The growth of her cities is more like magic than reality. New York has doubled its population in ten years. The man is yet living who felled the first tree and reared the first log-cabin on the site of Cincinnati. Now that city contains one hundred and fifty thousand souls. It is larger than the ancient and venerable city of Bristol, in England."

Thus the founders of our national compact have proved themselves the unsurpassed adepts in political science. They unquestionably belonged to that select number of whom Bolingbroke said that it has pleased the author of nature to mingle them from time to time, at distant intervals, among the societies of men, to maintain the moral system of the universe at an elevated point. Nor shall we find less variety of profound invention, or less popular advantages derived from practical applications in the realm of American mechanical science, than in the primary one of civic excellence just considered.

The labors of cotemporaries generally are in harmony with the epoch; and in America especially do they all tend to promote that ultimate destiny which promises to be much better as well as greater than the past sufferings, commotions and hopes of mankind. The Westering career of inventive genius reminds one of Milton's hero marching through the dark abyss to discover fairer realms beyond. Though assailed by feelings of discouragement, and fantastic apparitions rise before him, still he persistently rises from the dark depths, to set his foot on the gigantic bridge that leads from gloom to brightness, and sees at length the pendant new world hanging in a golden chain, fast by the empyreal heaven, "with opal towers and battlements adorned of living sapphire."

Modern science has produced a splendid mass of evidence as to the growing power and capacity of the human mind; of its independence, freedom and ability to direct its own movement; of resisting the influences of external agents; of inquiring after original truths, and acting according to its own ideas of propriety, justice or duty. As by the use of armed vision, and other mechanical aids, the modern scholar can extend his intellectual view to things, laws and results beyond the most distant conceptions of uncultivated mind, so will like means bring into near neighborhood nations and continents heretofore the most remote.

The mechanical inventor stands prominent among the chief heroes and benefactors of every productive people, and especially is this true of the mightiest in our day, the English race. Their bloodless conflict with, and conquest over the forces of nature, transcend in importance all the glitter of ancestral fame and the proud spoils of foreign wars. Nothing in ancient annals is comparable to the prodigious feats of human industry and skill which have been witnessed since the age of Washington began. Not to go east of our own immediate ancestors, it is interesting to see how the old haunts of power are now but the abandoned monuments of progress, the means of which are mostly mechanics, all the chief seats of whose influence have migrated to the West. Canterbury, Lincoln, Salisbury and Winchester have remained almost stationary ever since the United States were organized; while Leeds, Paisley and Glasgow, Birmingham, Manchester and Liverpool have become the comprehensive centers of the most productive and beneficent life. The growth of the latter town has corresponded with our own great commercial metropolis which, like it, is truly a city of the young and auspicious age. Sitting there upon a rock overlooking the Atlantic, and enriched with the merchandise of many nations, the modern Tyre of the old world, whose rugged Lancastrian dignity comports well with the majesty of universal commerce, relies for her principal support on her rival, New York.

Previous to the eighteenth century great ingenuity and fertility of invention was manifested in theoretical representations of mechanical principles and complicated machines. But in all that relates to efficient construction and adaptation to practical use, a total absence of scientific insight was manifested. The puny engines might act very well in the form of models, if not set to work out something in good earnest, but otherwise they were sure to knock themselves to pieces in a very short time. On the contrary, this century is distinguished in nothing more than by the potent simplicity and prolific benefits to which all its great mechanical inventions are reduced. The hundred eyes of Argus and the hundred hands of Briareus are at once laid under contribution to the widest good in the simultaneous action of all their most concentrated powers. Inventive genius, divinely guided, is fast altering the face of earth, and converting the elements of nature, together with her laws, into instruments and artificial powers, wherewith to augment the fruitfulness of human industry, and the products of cultivated soils. Labor-saving machinery increases the yield of agricultural science, facilitates transportation, and enriches commerce through the varied wealth it affords for exchange. The steam-engine, spinning-jenny and power-loom, consume neither food nor clothing, while they accomplish more labor than millions of weary human hands. How wonderfully does mechanical science augment the products of industry, multiply the comforts and diminish the diseases of life, develop-

ing the resources, and increasing the capital, intelligence and power of a nation!

With the exception of a few islands in hot climates, agriculture never did flourish in any country where the mechanic arts were not flourishing. Nearly all the grains, vegetables and plants, as well as fruits, which afford support to our spreading population and replenish the marts of trade, once grew spontaneously in Eastern climes, whence they were transplanted to constitute the advantage and reward of Western agriculture. As soon as the pioneer of a new region acquires sufficient knowledge of the mechanic arts, and learns to construct tools adapted to the cultivation of earth, he is able to convert its products into the means of comfort, and the staples of commerce. One discovery leads to another yet more prolific of good, and every improvement in mechanical science not only multiplies the enjoyments of rational man, but contributes to promote his health, increase his longevity, and augments the products of every realm of nature, in quantity, quality and value. Agriculture is therefore dependent upon mechanical science, not only for its origin, but also for every step of its progress in the sublime march of invincible civilization. Agriculture has less direct influence upon the wealth and power of a nation than commerce, but it is most conservative of the highest national weal. Minds engaged in the latter pursuit are more active and acute, more inclined to seek after new discoveries and such inventions as most favor zealous enterprise; hence, nearly all great material improvements have been made by the mechanical, manufacturing and commercial classes. Their minds are fuller of schemes and projects, often ill-digested; and they have more energy, but less stability of character, usually, than agriculturists. They are more daring, but less safe; their operations, unlike the salutary effects of bucolic toil, frequently partaking of the character of gambling speculations.

Most of our colonies were planted by commercial companies, and primarily depended on commercial gain for their chief support. But as our national resources and dangers have multiplied, very fortunately the conservative power of the rural populations has proportionately increased; so that at the present moment of peril, the mighty palladium of our Republic lies along the magnificent expanse of our Western agriculture.

The propulsive energies and ennobling tendencies of this age and nation consists mainly in its mechanical, mining and manufacturing industry, as the main feeders and conservators of its commerce. These lead to mental activity and independence, enterprise and inventions, which contribute to the largest measure of productive results, and most ameliorate the various conditions of life. Had we long been limited to the narrow area of the original thirteen colonies, the preponderance of the commercial spirit would probably have ruined us; but happily the maritime coast around the little East, extended as it may appear, is vastly exceeded by the widening dominions of agriculture opened in the great West, whose inexhaustible richness guarantees the perpetuity of our Union and the supplies of our food. Thither millions are escaping from the old world, painfully recollecting how many small homes they have seen demolished to make way for the exclusive parks and aristocratic mansions wherein they could find neither sympathy nor support. But on the virgin soil where rugged emigrants build their cabins of content, the sense of property becomes the truest of magicians; it is to them the consciousness of power, and the feeling of value in self-relying effort. Arthur Young well said, "Give a

man nine years' lease of a garden and he will turn it into a desert; give a man entire possession of a rock and he will turn it into a garden." The vast basin of the Mississippi will soon become the paradise of republicanism, the chief fountain of ameliorating civilization, and the central granary of the world.

The first canal that was opened in the United States extended from Boston to the river Merrimac. The "Great Western" soon after was undertaken, and now the finest canals in the country connect the Hudson with the grand series of inland seas, and thence extend beyond the Ohio. The first railroad was also constructed at the eastern extremity of our republic, and was the beginning of a continuous thoroughfare of rock and iron which at this time extends due west a greater length, and with more abundant profit than can elsewhere be found on earth. The first steamboat was built in the city of New York, and made her trial trip between the focal point of universal maritime navigation and the predestined line of the grandest inland travel direct from East to West. As canal, railroad and steamboat were wanted they were produced, exactly in the places and exigencies best fitted to give them the widest and most salutary use. Neither Fulton nor Clinton dreamed of what gigantic results they were the incipient agents. Even Jefferson, who as unconsciously served the hidden purposes of Providence in the purchase of Louisiana, when told of the proposed artery of commerce which now winds like a thread of silver through this imperial Commonwealth, said that "it was a very fine project and might be executed a hundred years hence." A hundred years hence! What will science have done for our nation before that period shall have transpired?

The advanced races are always the goers, while the less advanced are the stayers at home. Therefore the improvement of locomotion is one of the first essentials in the progression of mankind, to clog which is not merely a crime against the individual, but against humanity itself. Man, aided by the facilities which mechanical engineering has provided, is armed with the powers of nature; he has vanquished his opponent, and enlisted her forces in his service. Matter is no longer an impediment to oppose him, but the arsenal from which he draws his mightiest weapons and richest stores. Coal and water become concentrated forces, whose powers he may develop and control for the extension and improvement of his terrestrial dominion. One single steam-engine, constructed by mechanical science, is of more real importance than all the powers of Rome, and a single printing-press than all the arts of Greece. They are more than mere instruments, they are prodigious powers, placed at human disposal. They are products of reason; and just as that highest mental attribute learns to see further and further into the processes of nature, so does man by such means acquire new power for extracting welfare from the earth. When Humbolt would enumerate only a few of the instruments whose invention characterizes this great epoch in the history of civilization, he names "the telescope, and its long delayed connection with instruments of measurement; the compound microscope, which furnishes us with the means of tracing the conditions of the process of development of organs, which Aristotle gracefully designates as the formative activity of the source of being; the compass, and the different contrivances invented for measuring terrestrial magnetism; the use of the pendulum as a measure of time; the barometer; hygrometric and electrometric apparatuses; and the

polariscope, in its application to the phenomena of colored polarization in the light of the stars, or in luminous regions of the atmosphere." Chemistry instructs us as to what and whence the metals are; and from the grossest dregs elicits flaming gas, that great moralizer of modern cities, more powerful than an armed police. Mechanics and chemistry furnish us with an endless variety of substances, in combinations infinitely diversified, all tending to give man more power, leisure and comfort; to make him, in fact, freer and more elevated in his position on the globe. Instead of being the slave of physical nature, science renders man its master, as the Creator intended him to be when he gave him an earthly dominion.

An immense amelioration has taken place in the condition of modern society. Man has extended the limits of his life, has intelligently constructed circumstances less fatal to his organism, and has vastly diminished his liability to dissolution; in fact he has, to a certain extent, beaten the evils of the physiological world, exactly as he has vanquished the difficulties of the mechanical world. Better dwellings, clothing and food; more abundant supplies of water and pure air, and prompt treatment under acute disease; inoculation and vaccination; the improvement of prisons and workhouses, and a more rational mode of treating the human frame, both individual and collective, has secured to civilized man a longer tenancy and happier use of terrestrial existence. Thus the sciences not only lead to an amended order of action, but also to a condition amended and improved as well. And we confidently believe that the very same kind of improvements that have followed the mathematical and physical sciences, will supervene upon social science, and achieve in the world of progressive man far greater and more beneficent wonders than have yet been achieved in the world of subordinate matter.

Civilization was born on the banks of the great rivers of the East, and its grandeurs were first accumulated round the Mediterranean, under the sway of Greece and Rome. The mediæval age enabled European nations to develop their ultimate energies on the border of the Atlantic, and, with ships vastly superior to the triremes of antiquity, to take possession of the immense expanse of oceanic billows. Coincident with the establishment of great commercial exchanges in this new world, that masterly monument of mechanical science, the Eddystone Lighthouse, arose on the line of all progress, and guided the old powers and inert capital of Europe to improved enlargement and use in America. The great currents of the sea and trade-winds of heaven move Westward alike and evermore. Science daily adds new capacities and momentum in aid of transportation. Young as we are as a nation, our boats, yachts, clippers, and steamships are the first in the world. The child of the East has become a man in the West, where Oriental toys have expanded into colossal instruments proportioned to the occasions and efficiency of their requisite use. But no inventor is taken captive by his inventions here, however potent they may be. Every improvement lessens the impress of local character, and prevents a separation of the nation into distinct peoples. Petty cliques and transient conflicts may sometimes occur; but deep in the popular heart the great social country engrosses the profoundest regard, and entirely preponderates over the geographical country.

The finest bricks are made on the western shore of Lake Michigan; and the best materials for the manufacture of flint-glass abound in Minnesota. Lead and copper of great purity, and in astonishing abundance, attract and

reward industry beyond the grandest of inland seas; and silver, mixed with gold, in fabulous profusion, draws enterprise over the diameter of earth to explore nature's great storehouse along the Pacific shores. But better and more permanently profitable for man than all else of mundane wealth, are the more substantial treasures which are buried with inexhaustible richness on the terra firma route, preordained for ameliorated humanity to pursue from East to West. Coal and iron constitute the chief motor and metor of all physical improvement. Like freedom, superior intelligence, and exalted moral worth, they are the special gifts of God to those who speak the English language, and will be found most copious in those remote regions where republicans are destined to be most free.

As the prominent inventions of a people are the best exponents of their peculiar genius, and the clearest prophecies of prospective triumphs, so does the energy of their educational zeal indicate the measure and immediateness of their success. The successive departments of political and mechanical science we have severally considered above; let us now give more particular attention to the science of education, as exemplified in our land.

All human progress—political, intellectual, and moral—is inseparable from material progression, by virtue of the close interconnection which characterizes the natural course of social phenomena. But the educational element must form the principal band of the scientific sheaf, from its various relations, both of subordination and of direction to all the rest. It is in this way that the homogeneous co-ordination of legitimate sciences proceeds to the fullest development, and for the widest ulterior influence on human destiny. The filiation and adaptation of all great discoveries for the popular good, affords a fine subject for grateful contemplation, and is the most exhilarating guaranty to the loftiest hopes. The general intellect, under the auspices of American freedom, now, and for the first time, is entering upon the age of ameliorating science. It is an advent to be hailed with chastened joy, and to be guarded by vigilant expectation. In comparative anatomy, it is well known that a Cuvier may determine, from a single joint, tooth, or other fragment of an animal, whose species had never entered human eye or imagination, not only its general configuration, size, family, and grade in the series of organic beings, but also its physiological constitution, its manners, its food, its climatic habitation, whether in the geography or the chronology of the globe. "Even so equal knowledge of the analogous laws of symmetry and mutual dependence in the social system, eventually attainable, and to be applied to extant usages or disinterred relics, will enable its possessor, by a single specimen, accurately to fix the entire condition of the corresponding people on the scale of civilization. Tried by this criterion, what monuments of national mind may we not anticipate for the future, while we contemplate the results already attained by our brief but glorious past! As the greater Newton succeeded the great Kepler, and was in turn followed by La Place, who explained the physical counterpart of his predecessor's theory by the law of gravitation imperfectly understood by its own discoverer, so do we believe that the inductive method re-established by Francis Bacon will be consummated in our central clime, amid greatly increased splendors, by the mental manhood of the twentieth century.

The great prophet of science to whom we have just referred, lived mostly in the future, and in his last will he left "his name and memory to foreign

nations and to the next ages." He had crossed the Atlantic, whose storms men had penetrated for ages without perceiving the fair omens of progress, but in the confidence of his prophetic intuition he gave the name of Good Hope to the headland he had reached; as Magellan, when he beheld the boundless expanse of waters in another direction, called it the Pacific. The seeds which Bacon sowed have here sprung up, and are growing to a mighty tree, and the thoughts of millions come to lodge in its branches. Those branches spread "so broad and long, that in the ground the bended twigs took root, and daughters grew about the mother tree, a pillared shade high overarched, and echoing walks between;" walks where Literature may hang her wreaths upon the massy stems, and Art may adorn that Religion, of which Science erects the hundred-aisled temple. The preparation made for the present age, and the high anticipations entertained by the last and wisest of its precursors, is set forth as follows near the close of his "Advancement of Learning:"—

"Being now at some pause, looking back into that I have passed through, this writing seemeth to me, as far as a man can judge of his own work, not much better than that noise or sound which musicians make while they are tuning their instruments; which is nothing pleasant to hear, yet is a cause why the music is sweeter afterward: so have I been content to tune the instruments of the muses, that they may play who have better hands. And surely, when I set before me the condition of these times, in which Learning hath made her third visitation or circuit, in all the qualities thereof—as the excellency and vivacity of the wits of this age—the noble helps and lights which we have by the travails of ancient writers—the art of printing, which communicateth books to men of all fortunes—the openness of the world by navigation, which hath disclosed multitudes of experiments and a mass of natural history—the leisure wherewith these times abound, not employing men so generally in civil business, as the States of Greece did in respect of their popularity, and the State of Rome in respect of the greatness of her monarchy, the present disposition of these times to peace, and the inseparable propriety of time, which is ever more and more to disclose truth—I cannot but be raised to this persuasion, that this third period of time will far surpass that of the Grecian and Roman learning."

In 1647 the Plymouth colony of Massachusetts passed an act "that every township of fifty householders should appoint a person to teach all the children to read and write, and that every township of one hundred families should support a grammar-school."

In the following year (1648) the Legislative Assembly of the colony of Connecticut passed a statute in relation to education of very nearly the same purport as that passed in Massachusetts. The Puritans of New England entertained the same opinion as the Presbyterians of Scotland, that education is necessary to the performance of religious duty; and the former seem to have borrowed their ideas and system of education substantially from the latter. This was the foundation of the system of common-school education which was adopted in the State of New York in the early part of the nineteenth century, and has been more recently adopted in nearly all the free States. While no effort has been made to give the whole population of England a common-school education, and Parliament persists in discouraging such an undertaking, our newest Western States even exceed New England in their educational zeal.

The first college in America was founded on the eastern edge of Plymouth colony, and has been succeeded by a series of rivals stretching due west, so rapidly and widely multiplied in numbers and patronage, that

now the new States possess richer advantages for learning than the old. A self-educated seaman, born in the same region of rock and ice, was the first to translate and publish with emendations the profoundest mathematical works of modern times; and now there are successful aspirants after like distinction, whose towers of science stand reflected on the banks of the Ohio, casting their shadows still onward before the ascending sun. It was fitting that the most learned President of the United States should travel from Pilgrim Rock to the "Mount Adams" of Westward empire, whereon he laid the corner-stone of the only observatory extant, which is sustained by popular subscription, and rendered renowned by private enterprise. In that "Queen City," which seems like a thing of yesterday, not only has the pendulum of Galileo been made to measure the diameter of a single planet, but one of the most valuable inventions of this age, the astronomical clock, there first beat in its sublime reckoning of the universe. A printer, born in Boston, was armed by Providence with paper and twine, through which to draw harmless lightnings from the skies; and a painter in New York, through the same heavenly guidance, and at the fitting time, charged the celestial messenger with a kindred burden of human intelligence, and dispatched it first from the capitol of our Union to instruct and ameliorate mankind.

Coincident with the latter discovery, mechanical science in this great metropolis perfected a still more imperial civilizer, the steam power-press; and now not an element of nature expands, not a conquest of science is matured, and not an inspiration of genius fulmines in the gloom of penury, or around the pinnacles of power, that the press does not gather all the aggregated excellence in subordination to its use, to enhance the benefactions of ennobling intelligence upon which it subsists. In Boston, ether was first applied to ameliorate the dreaded pain of surgical steel, to mitigate the bitterest physical pangs, and rob Death himself of half his spiritual terrors. In Cincinnati, the steam fire-engine has just been added to other mighty conservative agents. As the general alarm aggravates midnight terrors, and the gains of a toilsome life are threatened by the remorseless conflagration, glaring in lofty defiance to ordinary resistance, a tiny match kindles the ardor of invincible union between diverse elements in united opposition, and agitated crowds are soon awed into admiring silence, as the mighty flames are speedily drowned. One of our citizens has recently mapped the ocean of international commerce, with all its old currents of power sagaciously discriminated, and newly traced as the best channels of safety. Another, venturing where no predecessor had ever been, has just returned from the regions of perpetual ice, to win the grateful applause of Christendom for the material wonders he discovered and the beneficent spirit he displayed. A clergyman of this city, for his researches in Palestine, was the first of four Americans who, within the last fifteen years, have been decorated with the golden medals of foreign honors; one of whom, on account of his explorations in the opposite direction, whither tends the greatest public good, has just been nominated to the highest secular dignity possible on earth.

The restless and insatiable activity of Americans in scientific research and moral heroism, was finely personated by Ulysses of old. Sick of Ithaca, Argos, Telemachus, and Penelope even, the old and indomitable mariner-king panted for untried dangers and undiscovered lands. His purpose was "to sail beyond the sunset, and the baths of all the western

stars, until he died." Thus actuated, man is lifted to a higher platform of observation, whence he may read the book of gemmed pictures illuminating his nights, and revealed to fill his soul with an inspiration more grand and inspiriting than any terrestrial object can communicate. It is the legitimate and appropriate sequence of the new revelations of modern science, and is designed more and more to render the master of earth free of the universe. In his heavenly Father's house are many mansions, and these with all their expansive marvels are unfolded in salutary enlargement, in order that their predestined possessor, through a corresponding education in their presence, may expand his spirit till it shall become approximately unbounded in a creation without bounds. The telescope, the compass, the press, the locomotive, and the telegraph, have in succession, and with vastly increased degrees of power, infused into the heart of humanity a sense of freedom, and in that influence their chief benefaction consists. Each new province annexed to the magnificent domain of present knowledge points more clearly to still richer provinces beyond; and on the remotest border of all, human immortality and infinite progress are most legibly inscribed. "Forward" and "forever" are exhortations not only vocal in the music of the spheres, but are repeated to the adventurer by the remotest billows, and quicken the passion for profounder investigation in the darkest depths.

The regulator of the steam-engine was invented in Massachusetts, where also originated most of the superior cotton and woolen machinery now generally employed. The locomotive was there entirely re-cast, and immensely improved. When the perfected "iron horse" thence advanced, surmounted by that indigenous embodiment of democratic huzzas, the steam-whistle, "Young America" was just beginning to go ahead. When, in the laboratory of the University in this city, the sun-picture was first invented, simultaneously with the labors of Daguerre, the same promising youth was favored with a glance of what he is yet to be. And when that first telegraphic message, "What hath God wrought!" was let fly with the lucid freedom of lightning, Young America, standing on the summit of six thousand years, and born to renovate the race whose final destiny he represents, had then, indeed, begun to talk.

A comprehensive view of political, mechanical, and educational science in our country, will teach us that the mightiest minds are more and more compelled to serve the masses; and that the most enormous outlay of capital, in either ponderous or exquisite producing agents, is all in favor of the undistinguished populace, and not for the special advantage of a select few. The most subtle and refined machinery, for example, is not applied to the most delicate and elegant kind of work, such as gold and silver, jewels and embroidery. These luxuries are mainly executed by hand, while the most expensive machinery is brought into play where operations on the commonest materials are to be performed, because these are executed on the widest scale. Such is especially the case when coarse and ordinary wares are manufactured for the many. This is why such a vast and astonishing variety of artificial power is used in our country and age. The machine, with its million fingers, works for millions of purchasers, while in lands less free, where magnificence and beggary stand side by side, tens of thousands work for one. There, art and science labor for princely aristocrats only; here, the great mass of the people are their chosen and most munificent patrons.

All great workers, and the improvements they originate, find their legitimate use only in the enunciation of great truths for the popular good. Thus it is that the relation of men to each other and to the whole world is progressively changed, and that always in the direction of increased equality. The universal mind receives simultaneously the impression of each new idea; it imprints itself upon domestic institutions, infuses itself into literature, reconstructs political formulas, and, in some measure, both impels and controls the religious life. It has lately been proved that the whole earth is a magnet, and all mental achievements in our day tend to render the domain of American civilization one immense university of science. At each remove toward Western freedom, progressive man has shown his mastery by compelling all the elements to help to create and grace his triumphs. The waters turned from their courses to move his mills; the sportive zephyrs and angry winds imprisoned in his sails; the flying vapor taken captive to whirl his myriad of spindles, or send the "iron missionary" tramp, tramp over the earth, splash, splash across the sea; the soft light he makes ministrant to the dearest joys, depicting by it the portrait of tenderest love; and the latent flame which sings along the wires by lines of railway, all alike and together prophesy of mightier and better things to come.

Facilities of knowledge are the auspicious means of transfusing into the soul those ideas which are the tools vouchsafed to shape the destiny of our race. The dynasty of a new thought is much more glorious than the pedigree of old kings; and the future of free America will infinitely transcend in worth and well-doing all the arbitrary dignities and adventitious splendors gone by.

The machinery of production in America is already greater than that of England. Our twenty-three millions of citizens produce a larger amount of valuable staples, while they build twice as many houses; make twice as many roads; apply three times more labor in the improvement of land; build four times as many school-houses and churches; and print ten times as many newspapers. We have laid the foundation of a pyramid whose base is a million of square miles, studded all over with innumerable little communities, each one of which occupies space sufficient for a large one, with its academy or its college, its journals, book-stores, and libraries, all aiding to give to the superstructure a magnificence proportioned to the breadth and stability of its base. Among the more Western States, not less than in the Eastern, there is universal activity and intelligence. It is safe to repeat that the Commonwealths recently organized have more and better printing-presses, and consume more well-read paper; that they have more commodious school-houses, and more scholars in them; more churches, and more devout Christians in them; more well-selected libraries, and more thoughtful readers in them, than any other nation on earth.

What our future may become, our brief past will best suggest. We know that however high we may ascend the course of history, we see, not in each or any particular people, but in the human family as a whole, an uninterrupted endeavor to enlarge the boundaries of knowledge, always progressive; so that from the obscurity of earliest time, we arrive step by step to modern science, more certain, more extended, and more prolific in practical results than was ever known in preceding ages. This progress is proved by the sovereignty which man has successively acquired over

nature, subordinating to his will her most energetic forces, and compelling them to accomplish the highest ends in the surest manner. We see what the earth, transformed in an immense portion of its best surface, has become under his hand. He subdues the billows, traverses seas, and his invincible thought, aspiring to still sublimer empire, makes his necessities to be served by the stars which vainly flee in the deserts of space.

From the survey which has been taken above of the spreading of ameliorating empire in the great West, it is evident that its central throne must soon rest on the granite heights beyond the great lakes, near the sources of the mighty Mississippi. Thither the free and brave millions are fast gathering, whose noble progeny will people the entire continent and bless the world. The denizens of those wealthy regions, and the patriots of those happy times, will be both intelligent and brave beyond precedent, in conserving the republican institutions they have received to perfect and perpetuate. The sentiment of the great man of the extreme East will be best appreciated and most sublimely exemplified, in proportion as it sweeps with the sun from the horizon of its origin, and from the loftiest Rocky Mountains resounds simultaneously from ocean to ocean the profoundest sentiment of undivided peoples, "Liberty and union, now and forever, one and inseparable!"

Art. III.—USURY LAWS.

THERE are no laws on statute books so lightly regarded, and so rarely enforced, as those which relate to the rate of interest. The readiness with which, and the facilities for evading them, seem to pacify that large class, the lenders, who would otherwise regard them as most obnoxious; while the fancied security which they seemingly afford to another class, the borrowers, quiets all agitation from that quarter. That the evasions are easily and often made, and the security they afford to the borrower only apparent, no one can doubt who devotes the least attention to the subject. And such being the case, it is a matter of surprise that wise legislators should have allowed laws to remain upon the statute book which, to say the least, are manifestly and openly violated. Some reproach, at least, must rest upon those legislators who, with the glaring evasions before their eyes, have remained quiet upon this subject; for if the laws are just and wise it is the duty of every legislator to see that they are enforced, or, at any rate, to fix penalties corresponding to the facilities with which they may be violated.

It will be my object in this communication, as far as the limits of your Review will permit, to show—

1st. That all usury laws are founded upon wrong and erroneous principles, and therefore fail to accomplish the end for which they were designed.

2d. That they tend rather to increase than to lower the rate of interest.

3d. That if the laws were strictly enforced, as in every well disposed government they should be, they would prove a curse rather than a blessing.

The idea of *usury* is of very ancient date. In the first account we have

of it, anything over and above the actual amount of the sum lent was called usury. The laws of usury which existed among the Jews, and that we find recorded in the Bible, has been the groundwork of the general opinions of the sinfulness of usury, that have prevailed in the earliest periods of the world's history. The Romish church, always influential in spreading error, were especially instrumental in sowing broadcast these opinions, and usury is denounced by the canon law. It is clear, however, that the Jews did not regard usury as a sin, since they only prohibited it between Jew and Jew. Had it been a sin *per se*, they would have denounced it universally. With them it was a legal, and not a moral sin. The opinion with regard to its sinfulness became, at a very early period, almost universal; and we find that most stringent laws were enacted against usury, and money-lenders most rigorously persecuted. It was not, in England, until the 37th year of the reign of Henry the Eighth, that a distinction was made between interest and usury. This was a great reform, as it evinced a different feeling with regard to the sin of usury; and perhaps the reform would have been greater, if at that very time it had not been legal to regulate the price of provisions by law. This was the first legal interest known in England. According to Hume, "the preamble of this very law treats the interest of money as illegal and criminal." So strong were the prejudices of the nation, that Edward VI., a boyish and superstitious king, revived the old laws, but they were ineffectual, for during his reign money was worth from ten to twelve per cent. Elizabeth revived the law of Henry VIII., and from that day to the present time the reform has been gradually extending, until now, in England, all usury laws have been abolished. The whole history of these laws show a gradual progress and revolution, all tending to the same result. A superstitious belief in the sin of usury, fostered and encouraged by the Romish church, formed their only foundation.

It was not strange, then, that our forefathers, coming from a land where sentiments prevailed, almost universally, that usury was sinful, and turning for all law, human and divine, to the Bible, should re-enact the old Jewish law. In 1641, in Massachusetts, it was ordered, decreed, and by the court declared, "That no man shall be adjudged for the mere forbearance of any debt above £8 in the 100 for one year, and not above that rate proportionably for all sums whatsoever, bills of exchange not excepted; neither shall this be a color or countenance to allow any usury among us contrary to the law of God." This law remained in force till 1693, when a law was passed fixing the rate of interest at six per cent, under penalty of forfeiting value of money or what was lent. In 1750 borrower and lender could come into court and testify; and in 1783 it was still further amended, by making the penalty recoverable by indictment, or by an action on the same. In 1825 the law was wholly repealed, and the statutes of 1825-6, with a slight amendment in 1846, are in force. Since 1825-6 they have been allowed to remain a dead letter. And we may say, in the words of another, "It is singular that an enactment which contradicted the most obvious principles, and has been repeatedly condemned by committees of the Legislature, should have been allowed to remain upon the statute book so long."

Having thus briefly given the history of the usury laws, we will consider our first proposition, "That all usury laws are founded upon wrong and erroneous principles." It is evident that when any rate of interest is

allowed to be right, the doctrine of the sinfulness of usury is no longer tenable. The laws must rest upon some other foundation, and that foundation can be none other than the assumption, that law can and should regulate the price of money. It is not necessary to multiply facts, for they are abundant, and within the experience of all persons, that such laws never have and never did produce such a result, and that money has had a value depending upon the same causes as those which regulate the prices of all merchandise. Indeed, the laws have had no effect in producing such a result, but on the contrary, have had an entirely different effect. It is an historical fact, that in all countries where there have been stringent usury laws, there the rate of interest has been the highest. In countries where the Koran is used, which book expressly forbids usury, there a high rate of interest exists. Says McCulloch, an able writer on political economy, "Legislative enactments invariably increase the price of money, for if the rate fixed by law is less than the market rate, lenders and borrowers are obliged to resort to circuitous devices to evade it; and therefore, as there is more risk, there is more interest, or a greater price to be paid."

Examine, for a moment, the causes which must and always will produce this result wherever such laws exist. It is perfectly evident, that if the legal rate was the only price of the value of money, that such effects as we have mentioned could not result. But there is a market rate for money, and this rate must exist whenever money can be invested more profitably by the capitalist than it can be if loaned at the legal rate of interest, for surely no one would wish to loan his money at six per cent when he could obtain by its investment from ten to twenty. The market rate of money is what it is worth to the owner for investment, and of course what it will bring with borrowers. It is manifest that this rate cannot be uniform, but its degree must depend upon various circumstances, such as the character of the loan and of the individual to whom the loan is to be made, and the character of the government. Every one must be cognizant of the variety of circumstances which go to make up the risk attending loans. A market rate of money always has and always will exist, as fluctuating as the prices of the various products of human labor. No one will presume to deny this; and all laws which affix a penalty for loaning money at above a fixed rate must, when that is below the market rate, increase the risk and of course the price. There are historical facts which bear me out in this assertion. I will mention a few of them. In England, when the laws were most rigorous against usury, the rate of interest or market rate was 46 per cent. From the time of King Alfred, A. D. 800, to 37th year of Henry VIII., money-lenders were most rigorously persecuted, and at no time was the price of money greater. At Rome, under the Republican government, the rate of interest was exceedingly high. In reign of King John 86 per cent was asked for money. In view of these facts, and from experience and the light which history gives us, I think it would not be presumption to say, that if usury laws were strictly enforced, that the market rate of interest, instead of ranging from six to ten per cent, would range still higher, and there would immediately be petitions for their abolishment. It has been the violation of the laws and the permitting the offenders to go unharmed, with the allowed publication of the market value of money in the newspapers of the day, that has kept these laws upon the statute book so long. But

since legislation cannot and does not control the price of money, or compel the lender to take the legal rate only for money, it seems just and right to ask that they may be abolished, or at least that principle of these laws which fixes one rate for money under all circumstances. They should be abolished, because they are founded upon a wrong and erroneous principle, that law can control the price of money. I pass now to my second proposition, which is "That usury laws tend rather to increase the price of money." This is almost self-evident. For if the rate fixed by law is not maintained, whenever a loan is made above that rate the laws must increase the price, as the lender will demand of the borrower something for the risk he incurs in infringing the law. This is a direct injustice to the borrower, for the law not only obliges him to pay more for a loan, but drives him from those law-abiding men who would willingly lend him if the law did not forbid, yet who are obliged, on account of its existence, to either hoard their money or place it where they can get its market value—drives him to men less conscientious and less fearful of the terrors of the law, who, taking advantage of his necessities, oftentimes ask more than the market rate. Many a borrower is driven from his neighbor who has money in abundance, but will not lend it to become the prey of sharpers. Again, they increase the price of money by driving it, if the rate is low at home, to other States, where the legal rate may be higher, and thus diminish the supply at home to meet the demand. It is well known that the legal rate is higher in New York than in Massachusetts, and of course a great deal of the unemployed capital goes to New York from Massachusetts. In every instance when the value of money is high, there is a large amount of money which would come into the market, and tend to lower the rate, if there were no laws, and if a fair competition existed in the money as well as in the meat market. Not a mill of money which is hoarded up in a money pressure that does not tend to raise the price which the borrower must pay.

Indeed, those laws close the only safety-valve which oftentimes exists to relieve a money pressure. For if no usury laws existed, whenever the market was tight, to use a familiar expression, the price or interest of money would rise in proportion, and the consequence would be that money uninvested would flow in from all quarters to obtain the increased rates, and as happens in all departments of trade, a diminished rate would speedily be the result, and great relief to the money market. This is not a fancy sketch, for it is what takes place every year in every department of trade. There would be the same competition in the sale of money as of merchandise, and, as a necessary result, more favorable terms. At present there is an actual monopoly of trade in money when the rate is high by those who are willing to evade the laws, while all law-abiding citizens are shut out from the market.

Still again. The laws, by establishing a fixed rate for all loans, without regard to their nature or risk, are unequal and unjust in their operation. For instance, suppose A has one thousand dollars to loan, B and C wish to hire, B can give better security than C, but C can, by giving more than the legal rate of interest, and his business will allow of it, make it better for A to lend him. But A is not willing to take more than the legal rate, and therefore B obtains the money and C must suffer. This simple case serves to show that the laws operate to the disadvantage of those whose securities may be questionable, but yet whose capacities and

credit are excellent—to the disadvantage of the farmer and mechanic. For no sane man would lend at the same rate to a man with good and a man with questionable security. It is evident that a greater price would be demanded of the one who could only offer doubtful security, but the law of usury compels you to ask the same. Now what justice is there in this? What right has the law to step in and say you have no right to give for an article what you think it is worth—you have no right to take as much for your money as any individual can afford to give? The laws do not do this with regard to other things of like exchangeable value. If the principle of these laws is correct, then it should be carried out with regard to every article, and no man should be allowed to take from another more than the actual worth of an article, for the principle of interest is involved in the sale of every article of merchandise. For instance, if a man sells a barrel of flour which is worth but \$12 for \$16, he actually receives \$4 interest. It may be objected that money is not merchandise. To be sure money differs from merchandise in its greater exchangeable value, and the necessity of money to every individual. This exchangeable value and necessity of money to every individual constitutes its value, and of course belongs to the owner of money, with the same liability as merchandise, to fluctuations in price. Indeed, money differs from the products of labor only by possessing those qualities in a higher degree. The right of an individual to money is as absolute as his right to any of the products of his labor, and he has the same control of it. When an individual obtains money, he is certainly possessed of the power which it gives; he has given the value of it and of all the qualities which attach to it. Nothing can be more false in theory and practice than that legislation can control the price of money. Indeed, the very existence of usury laws on the pages of the statute book tends to increase the price of money, injures the borrower, and is a clog to the mercantile community, and a relic of the past. The Governor of Louisiana, in a veto of a usury bill in that State, said: "History shows that the price of all products of labor have been the subject of legislation, and gradually, as civilization and knowledge advanced, were removed. This is the last relic of such legislation. The people should be left to manage their own concerns. It is certainly as competent for two individuals to agree upon the price of a loan as upon the rent of a house or the wages of labor, the contract between the borrower and lender being of the same nature." It is asserted, that if we repeal the laws of usury that the price or interest of money will be still higher than it is now, because capitalists will combine together and ask any amount they choose. This is a great mistake, and arises from the erroneous idea that individuals can control the price of money. How utterly erroneous such an idea is, must be evident when we consider that there is now a constant fluctuation in the market price of money, which no one will for a moment attribute to the power of law, nor the will or caprice of individuals. If it is in the power of individuals to combine together and fix a market rate for money, why do they not do it now? Is it on account of law? Is there anything in the laws which will prevent them? No, for it is because they have not the power. It is because the fluctuations in the price of money depend upon causes beyond the control of individuals and of law. I will just mention a few causes which must influence the rate of interest of money. One principal cause, and one which regulates the price of all the products of labor, is supply

and demand. Money is disposable capital. Money as money has no value. Its value consists in its use in purchasing the products of human labor and in facilitating exchanges, and the price demanded for its use bears some proportion to the profit made by its employment. When exchanges are frequent, or business good, then the demand for money will be great, while the supply will be diminished, and of course, as a natural consequence, an increased rate of interest, other things being equal. On the other hand, if exchanges are less frequent, the demand will be diminished and an increased supply, and as a result, a lower rate of interest. I would by no means assert that a high rate of interest is a necessary result of good business, or a low rate of bad business, though such a state of things may be said generally to exist. In America and Turkey, generally, the rate of interest is high, but it is clear that the same cause does not exist for it in both countries. In the latter, the bad character of the government contributes to that result; while the prosperity of the former, and the increased demand for money that exists, increases the rate there.

The bad character of government, then, is still another cause of increase of the price of money beyond the control of individuals. If a government does not regard the right of property—if contracts are allowed to be broken with impunity—if there is no security to personal property, it is obvious that under such a government the price of money must necessarily be high. It is not necessary to multiply other causes, since they will readily suggest themselves to the reader. I have mentioned a sufficient number to show that they are wholly removed from the power of the individual, and that it is impossible for any individuals, by any combination, to establish any rate of interest they may choose. What the law cannot do, it is not reasonable to expect can be done. If the law cannot enforce a legal rate of interest, will any individual or number of individuals be able to do it? That some may be cheated, in paying for money an exorbitant rate, if the laws of usury are abolished, there can be no doubt, but this is no more than occurs every day now. To proscribe the taking the value of the use of money from any one, because forsooth one may take advantage of the necessities of another and take more, would be as unjust as it would be to proscribe the taking of a fair profit for a barrel of flour, because perhaps some one or two individuals should take more than a fair profit. There is no possibility or probability, if the laws of usury were repealed to-day, that danger would arise from combination among capitalists to keep up a high rate. It is enough to say, and a sufficient reply to all objections that may be made, that whatever is done, whether the laws of usury are repealed or not, it will be impossible to prevent usury without preventing all dealings between individuals.

I pass now to my third and last proposition, which is, "That if the laws were strictly enforced they would prove a curse." This hardly needs proof, for it is of itself self-evident, and one single supposition will be all that it is necessary to make. Suppose that in times when failures are prevalent, the strongest business firms apparently tottering on the verge of bankruptcy, confidence first being lost in all firms, that the law of usury were strictly enforced, and capitalists who had money to loan were obliged to loan at six per cent, if they loaned at all, how many would be willing, at such a time, to risk their money for such a pittance. We should hardly consider a man sane who should do it. The result would

be unavoidable—failures upon failures would take place, which would perhaps be avoided were there no law to interpose.

This article has already been continued beyond the limits I proposed when I commenced. If the arguments I have offered against the present laws of usury shall do anything to turn the attention of legislators and the community to the absurdity of these laws, and the folly of allowing this relic of a barbarous age to remain longer to disfigure our statute books, the object of my writing will be accomplished.

Art. IV.—COMMERCIAL AND INDUSTRIAL CITIES OF THE UNITED STATES.

NUMBER XLIV.

MILWAUKIE, WISCONSIN.

MILWAUKIE, a port of entry, is situated on the west shore of Lake Michigan, at the mouth of Milwaukie River, 90 miles north from Chicago, and 75 miles east from Madison. It is pleasantly located on the flats bordering the river, and on the bluffs which rise abruptly from the margin of the lake to the height of about 100 feet. The river approaches from the north in a direction nearly parallel with the lake shore, and is joined, about one mile from its mouth, by the Menomonie River, which flows in from the west. The largest boats of the lake ascend the river two miles from its mouth. The general appearance of the city is described as peculiar and striking, from the color and superior quality of the bricks manufactured there. They have a delicate cream or straw color, agreeable to the eye, and not affected by the action of the elements. Many of these bricks are exported to different parts of the Union. The bricks used in the erection of a building on Broadway, New York, were, we believe, obtained at this place.

Milwaukie contains about 30 churches, of which 26 are Protestant, and 4 Catholic; 6 public schools, a university institute, a female college, several academies, 3 orphan asylums, and other benevolent institutions. The streets, stores, &c., are lighted with gas.

At a meeting of the Milwaukie Board of Trade, in 1855, Mr. A. J. Aikens was appointed to prepare a report of the statistics of the commerce and manufactures of that city. This report, which is now before us, and from which we take most of the facts and figures in the present article, was the result of two months' labor, and is, beyond all question, as reliable as anything of the kind. It certainly exhibits the commercial and industrial condition of the place in a favorable light.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS. Milwaukie is fast rising into notice as an inland port of more than ordinary importance. It was thought the year 1854 was particularly auspicious in its exhibit of the commerce of the city, having imported about \$12,000,000 of various articles of commerce, and exported about \$8,000,000. The wheat exports were thought by some to be an example of peculiar and isolated productiveness, being 2,052,000 bushels, but the export of that article, the year 1855, proves that the resources of the State have but just begun to be developed. Notwithstanding

ing the forehandedness of the producers and their ability to hold the last crop, there was exported from the port of Milwaukee alone 4,028,966 bushels of wheat, valued at \$6,621,863; and of flour, 235,691, worth \$1,887,688—showing a total valuation in breadstuffs of more than \$8,500,000. Wisconsin wheat, we are told, commands a premium in all Eastern markets, of from 5 to 10 cents, over other Western wheat.

The total value of the imports of Wisconsin in 1854 amounted to \$11,124,803, and in 1855 to \$18,649,832—showing an increase of more than \$7,000,000 in favor of 1855. We extract from the report the subjoined table, showing the quantity and value of each article received at Milwaukee during the year 1855:—

IMPORTS.			
Names of articles.		Amount.	Value.
Lumber, joists, &c.....	feet	63,000,000	\$1,008,000
Lath.....	pieces	17,850,000	80,325
Shingles.....		16,200,000	60,750
Shingle bolts.....	cords	1,000	16,000
Bark.....		2,860	16,160
Square timber.....	feet	150,000	1,500
Merchandise, &c, not otherwise enumerated, tons		73,300	10,300,000
Sugar.....	hhds.	21,000	1,470,000
Sugar.....	bbls.	30,600	550,800
Molasses and sirup.....		19,436	291,540
Coffee.....	bags	33,700	505,500
Codfish.....	boxes	9,000	108,000
Mackerel.....	bbls.	2,100	16,800
Dried apples.....	bush.	13,452	21,869
Dried peaches.....		10,346	31,058
Green apples.....	bbls.	51,523	119,046
Green peaches.....	baskets	4,500	13,566
Tea.....	chests	22,700	499,400
Raisins.....	boxes & kegs	36,500	110,412
Glass.....	boxes	25,442	62,662
Nails.....	kegs	42,326	169,304
Axes.....	boxes	3,475	34,750
Candy.....		1,992	5,976
Starch.....		8,000	20,000
Rice.....	tierces	338	9,126
Tobacco.....	lbs.	1,400,000	168,000
Soap.....	boxes	25,000	50,000
Candles.....		12,000	96,000
Oil.....	bbls.	6,300	252,000
Saleratus.....	boxes	8,674	21,675
Whitelead.....	kegs	22,000	55,000
Cheese.....	lbs.	383,500	42,185
Liquor.....	bbls.	15,534	233,010
Steel.....	tons	200	29,000
Iron.....		6,465	387,900
Railroad iron.....		13,992	839,520
Coal.....		74,841	337,285
Leather.....	rolls	4,900	294,000
Horses.....		2,263	181,040
Salt.....	bbls.	74,592	130,536
Salt.....	sacks	122,000	15,860
Stoves.....		22,200	250,000
Wagons.....		2,500	225,000
Barrels, furniture, &c.....		10,000	100,000
Cider and vinegar.....	bbls.	3,000	12,000
Plaster.....		5,800	16,400

The following table, from the same authentic source, presents a comparative view of some of the principal articles imported into Milwaukee in 1854 and 1855:—

COMPARATIVE IMPORTS.

	1854.	1855.
Boards, joists, &c.....feet	27,750,000	63,000,080
Shingles.....	10,480,000	17,850,000
Lath.....pieces	7,000,000	16,200,000
Railroad iron.....tons	6,225	13,992
Nails.....kegs	22,043	42,336
Sugar.....hhds.	3,705	21,000
Sugar.....bbls.	13,779	40,800
Molasses and sirup.....	3,890	19,436
Apples.....	23,804	51,423
Salt.....bags	54,317	122,000
Salt.....bbls.	58,524	74,592
Merchandise, not specified.....value	\$6,627,000	\$10,300,000
Whitelead.....kegs	15,594	22,000
Glass.....boxes	15,936	25,442
Coal.....tons	8,400	74,000

The amount and value of the exports for the year 1855, as given by Mr. Aiken, the Secretary of the Board of Trade, will be seen in the following table:—

EXPORTS.

Names of articles.	Amount.	Value.
Merchandise.....tons	10,300	\$5,150,000
Flour.....bbls.	235,661	1,889,788
Feed.....bush.	8,000	1,600
Wheat.....	4,028,966	6,621,863
Barley.....	92,291	110,749
Corn.....	117,000	7,020
Oats.....	24,000	10,800
Beans.....	1,818	4,999
Rye.....	61,646	61,646
Potatoes.....	44,703	29,057
Malt.....	17,925	26,887
Pig-iron.....tons	616	22,792
Ashes.....casks	3,500	87,500
Grass-seed.....lbs.	365,000	228,113
Wool.....	625,280	237,600
Soap.....boxes	4,157	10,395
Saleratus.....	2,448	6,120
Lime.....bbls.	20,000	30,000
Beer.....	10,255	102,550
Bacon.....lbs.	1,170,000	99,450
Hams and shoulders.....bbls.	13,704	232,968
Lard.....	4,423	97,306
Lard.....kegs	501	275
Pork.....bbls.	36,546	653,282
Beef.....	9,976	119,712
Fish.....	2,140	17,120
Butter.....lbs.	450,000	72,000
Sundries.....packages	12,000	275,000
Cranberries.....bush.	500	2,000
Eggs.....bbls.	500	7,500
Brick.....number	6,500,000	65,000
Provisions, merchandise, &c.....value	500,000
Farina, wheat.....	3,000
Vinegar.....bbls.	1,200	7,200

Names of articles.	Amount.	Value.
Glue.....bbls.	175	\$2,800
Whisky.....	1,805	30,885
Broom-corn.....bales	510	4,500
Tobacco.....lbs.	125,000	31,250
Shot.....	55,033	2,201
Leather.....	125,473	62,736
Hops.....	40,000	5,000
Staves.....	700,978	10,515
Hides.....	15,000	60,000
Candles.....boxes	3,600	9,000
Packing barrels.....	5,000	6,875
Merchandise and fruit, not enumerated....tons	3,000	300,000
Total, 1855.....	\$17,329,571
Total, 1854.....	7,709,531

The total exports, according to the above table, amounted (1855) to \$17,329,571. Mr. Aiken gives the total of 1854 at \$7,709,531—an increase of more than \$10,000,000 in favor of 1855. We also add a table, showing the comparative exports of principal articles for the last four years—that is, from 1852 to 1855, both years inclusive:—

COMPARATIVE EXPORTS.

	1852.	1853.	1854.	1855.
Flour.....bbls.	88,213	159,216	155,061	235,000
Pork.....	21,522	12,741	24,558	36,546
Beef.....	6,767	4,790	7,524	9,476
Wheat.....bush.	428,512	1,181,000	2,052,316	4,028,966
Oats.....	295,895	152,233	424,487	24,000
Barley.....	285,237	250,727	323,267	92,291
Rye.....	65,142	97,271	132,178	61,640
Grass-seed.....	6,696	11,134	17,503	8,000
Beer.....bbls.	645	3,639	8,500	10,255
Stoves.....	128,250	537,734	671,200	708,978
Brick.....	701,000	3,425,000	3,645,000	6,500,000
Lard.....lbs.	84,830	219,912	624,120	934,706
Wool.....	289,784	412,431	226,458	625,230
Butter.....	208,058	92,630	405,500	450,000
Hams and shoulders.....	152,711	156,160	1,640,800
Ashes.....tons	316	467	*2,047	*3,500
Eggs.....dozen	39,700	131,700	57,300	41,250
Packing barrels.....	1,162	2,527	17,225	5,000

The duties collected at the port during the year 1855 amounted to \$173,130.

NAVIGATION. The harbor of Milwaukee, as now nearly completed, is the finest on the whole chain of lakes, and has been constructed at a cost to the city of over \$60,000. The straight cut can be entered under the heaviest northeaster that has ever blown, and, with a little river dredging, there is dock room for ten times the present shipping. Something of the importance of Milwaukee as a lake port, may be found in the annexed table of arrivals for the year 1855:—

ARRIVALS OF VESSELS AT THE PORT OF MILWAUKIE DURING THE NAVIGATION SEASON OF 1855.

	Steam-vessels.	Sail-vessels.	Total.		Steam-vessels.	Sail-vessels.	Total.
March.....	20	5	25	August.....	166	153	319
April.....	106	60	166	September.....	150	158	808
May.....	154	173	327	October.....	148	198	346
June.....	166	180	346	November.....	110	130	240
July.....	169	193	367	December.....	15	43	58
					1,204	1,298	2,502

Not reported, 300, making a total for the year, of 2,802, and a total tonnage, of 980,700.

We give a list of sail-vessels and steamers, belonging to the district of Milwaukee, on the 31st of December, 1855:—

BARKS.

Names.	Tonnage.	Names.	Tonnage.
Badger State.....	491 6	E. C. L.....	341 53

PROPELLERS.

Geo. W. Tift.....	81 26
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BRIGS.

Algoma.....	269 15	Preble.....	217 32
David Ferguson.....	320 18	Belle.....	276 2
C. I. Hutchinson.....	241 42	Powhattan.....	234 41
Ocean.....	257 81	Racine.....	229 5

SCHOONERS.

Active.....	25 62	Milwaukee Belle.....	368 6
Adda.....	274 53	Major Barnum.....	65 70
Albany.....	144 2	May Queen.....	246 82
A. V. Knickerbocker.....	61 57	Nebraska.....	240 71
Baltic.....	96 4	Napoleon.....	148 82
Chorubusco.....	254 11	North Cape.....	102 73
Calcutta.....	116 26	Norway.....	230 32
Congress.....	206 32	Odine.....	173 16
C. Harrison.....	187 11	Robert B. Campbell.....	179 72
Charley Hibbard.....	209 38	Rover.....	35 74
D. O. Dickinson.....	333 33	Republic.....	360 70
E. Cramer.....	160 79	Sam Hale.....	293 93
Emma.....	157 87	Souvenir.....	64 2
Emily.....	69 7	Sandusky.....	110 34
Fred Hill.....	268 85	Sacramento.....	115 93
Fannie and Floy.....	143 35	Sam Strong.....	222 58
Farmer.....	100 2	Tempest.....	209 50
Gazelle.....	104 40	Toledo.....	85 52
Henry Hagar.....	237 50	Twin Brothers.....	143 40
Henry Clay.....	59 40	Undine.....	100 5
Indus.....	246 70	Virgin Purdy.....	301 96
Juniatta Patton.....	260 65	William H. De Witt.....	248 9
J. F. Porter.....	124 49	Wollin.....	47 67
J. Steinhart.....	68 64	Wayne.....	80 30
J. and A. Stronach.....	146 25	William H. Stephens.....	297 12
J. M. Jones.....	156 53	Amelia.....	55 62
Josephine Lawrence.....	110 26	Active.....	127 66
Kirk White.....	184 3	A. C. Van Ralte.....	21 36
Kitty Grant.....	105 90	Belle City.....	168 4
Lester R. Rockwell.....	115 54	Cherokee.....	203 85
L. Ludington.....	234 52	D. Newhall.....	189 88

SCHOONERS.

Names.	Tonnage.	Names.	Tonnage.
Erie.....	62 88	Whirlwind	154 61
Fashion.....	223 33	Charlotte	155 47
Gilbert Knapp.....	197 90	C. North.....	151 90
Juliana.....	11 33	Defiance.....	110 29
Liberty.....	54 42	J. S. Harvey.....	299 6
Monsoon.....	189 52	Mariner.....	159 63
Pacific.....	122 36	Challenge.....	110 81
Rambler.....	137 65	L. B. Nichols.....	80 10
Three Bells.....	80 80	Traveler.....	74 90
Union.....	87 90		

SLOOPS.

Lady Ann	30 37		Wunx.....	40 30
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MANUFACTURES. The manufactures of Milwaukie are no inconsiderable part of its industry. The extensive water power of the river constitutes an important element in the property of the city. The reported value of articles manufactured in 1852 was only about \$2,000,000; in 1854 it reached \$4,633,712; and in 1855 the manufactures amounted to more than \$5,500,000.

The following table of the manufactories of the city of Milwaukie commences on the 1st day of January, 1855, and ends on the 31st day of December, 1855:—

MANUFACTURES OF MILWAUKIE IN 1855.

Articles.	Value.
Ale and beer, 50,578 bbls.....	\$431,710
Brick, 25,650,000	164,850
Barrels (flour, pork, and whisky)	112,500
Boots and shoes	185,350
Burr millstones.....	12,000
Bookbinding	22,000
Bedstead and wood turning.....	35,000
Sheekskins, morocco, &c., tanned	42,000
Pails and tubs, (1 factory 9 months in operation).....	14,637
Tannery, 1	75,000
Lumber planing, sash and door factories	175,300
Bread and cracker bakeries.....	120,000
Brooms, 1 factory.....	6,616
Billiard tables.....	42,000
Clothing	318,500
Cabinet furniture	187,200
Confectionery	20,000
Carriges	21,000
Caps, hats, and furs	30,000
Camphene and burning fluid.....	9,391
Drugs, paints, patent medicines, &c.....	5,500
Flour, 106,500 bbls	852,000
Guns and pistols.....	6,500
Glue, 1 factory	10,000
Iron manufactured, machinery, locomotives, stationary engines, and various other castings	532,788
Other miscellaneous articles in this connection, not enumerated.....	150,000
Matches, 1 factory	38,000
Piano-fortes	8,500
Marble cutting, 1 yard.....	7,000
Vinegar, 3 factories, 2,000 bbls.....	4,500
Harness, carriage trimming, saddlery, and trunks	75,000
Jewelry, silver and plated ware.....	15,000

Articles.	Value.
Threshing machines, straw cutters, wagons and trucks	\$120,000
Sheet iron, tin, and copper manufactures.....	125,000
Stone and earthen ware.....	16,000
Pork and beef packing, 43,404 bbls	564,252
Soap and candles, 30,350 boxes	121,400
Bone black and grease, 1 factory	4,000
Soap, candle, and wine box factory, 1	6,600
Job printing	31,975
Paper, 1 factory	50,182
Daguerreotypes and photographs.....	23,500
Wire screening	10,000
Patent machine factory	15,000
Maps, charts, &c.....	6,000
Wool and yarn, 1 factory	31,200
Stone-cutters, 2 yards	6,000
Patent safe, 1 factory.....	15,000
Ship-building.....	140,000
Plows	4,000
Stoves and hollow-ware.....	20,000
Starch, 1 factory.....	10,000
Umbrellas, &c.....	1,000
Lime, 60,000 bbls.....	45,000
Gas, 11,016,252 cubic feet.....	38,558
Rectified spirits and cordials.....	8,000
Gloves and mits	6,500
Saleratus, 1 factory, 260 tons	24,000
Shingles, 2,000,000.....	81,000
Horseshoeing and other smiths' work, not enumerated	30,000
Railroad passenger cars.....	10,000
Engraving and lithographing	6,000
Millinery establishments	41,200
Brass, ivory, and wood turning, of which there are several small establishments not included in the foregoing.....	5,000
Cow bells, 1 factory	800
Whisky, 22,172 bbls.....	283,732
Root-beer factory	6,000
Cigars and tobacco.....	45,652
Plane factory, 1	2,000
Window shades.....	3,000
Baking-powder, 1 factory	3,000
Total, 1855.....	\$5,590,412
Total, 1854.....	4,633,712

BANKING AND MONEY MATTERS.—There are six banks of issue in Milwaukee, with an aggregate capital of \$975,000, divided as follows:—

1. State Bank of Wisconsin... \$400 000	4. Bank of Commerce..... \$100 000
2. Farmers' and Millers' Bank. 250 000	5. Wisconsin Mar. & Fire In. Co 100 000
3. Bank of Milwaukee..... 100 000	6. Peoples' Bank..... 25 000
\$975 000	

These six banks discounted bills to the following amounts, during each week of the year 1855:—

Jan. 6..... \$84,801	Feb. 24. \$130,674	April 14. \$98,184
Jan. 13..... 155,336	Mar. 3..... 109,946	April 21..... 120,780
Jan. 20..... 128,009	Mar. 10..... 166,623	April 28..... 151,960
Jan. 27..... 166,669	Mar. 17..... 150,467	May 5..... 176,608
Feb. 3..... 98,653	Mar. 24..... 172,789	May 12..... 161,266
Feb. 10..... 112,351	Mar. 31..... 142,187	May 19..... 129,297
Feb. 17..... 83,623	April 7..... 131,724	May 26..... 171,089

June 2.....	\$175,999	Aug. 18.....	\$138,716	Nov. 3.....	\$370,304
June 9.....	114,457	Aug. 25.....	156,590	Nov. 10.....	309,652
June 16.....	183,448	Sept. 1.....	183,412	Nov. 17.....	295,661
June 23.....	196,335	Sept. 8.....	268,486	Nov. 24.....	280,304
June 30.....	223,632	Sept. 15.....	246,713	Dec. 1.....	249,180
July 7.....	150,632	Sept. 22.....	226,687	Dec. 8.....	336,587
July 14.....	170,492	Sept. 29.....	231,365	Dec. 15.....	337,054
July 21.....	118,756	Oct. 6.....	318,524	Dec. 22.....	239,804
July 28.....	136,860	Oct. 13.....	313,273	Dec. 29.....	358,827
Aug. 4.....	145,715	Oct. 20.....	329,938		
Aug. 11.....	128,519	Oct. 27.....	308,407	Total....	\$9,869,728

The Farmers' and Millers' Bank capital was increased on the 1st of July, 1855, from \$100,000 to \$250,000. The stock of the Bank of Milwaukie was not all paid in until the 1st July, 1855.

Mr. Aiken and the Board of Trade think the business of Milwaukie really requires \$3,000,000. We quote from the report on this head, as follows:—

"Our banking capital is slowly enlarging, and we venture to say that there is not a more favorable location in the Union to enter upon banking than Milwaukie at the present time affords. Our law is confessedly the best in the Union, and there are good customers here for as large banking facilities as are given to Troy or Albany or Hartford. Banking paper here is not accommodation notes, but based upon actual produce transactions—which brings the paper within the strict rule of commercial banking, and discounting such paper, a bank with ordinary good management, cannot fail. But we also need banks that can discount manufacturers' paper—similar to many institutions in New England, and which have been the means of adding so largely to the industrial activity that has converted the water-power on its mountain streams into engines of productive industry."

REAL AND PERSONAL ESTATE.—The assessed valuation of the city on the 31st of December, 1855, was \$17,789,352. Divided among the five wards as follows:—

First Ward, Real and Personal.....	\$6,029,840
Second Ward " ".....	2,659,040
Third Ward " ".....	4,257,900
Fourth Ward " ".....	2,790,420
Fifth Ward " ".....	2,052,172

Total Real and Personal property..... \$17,789,352

Real estate has constantly advanced in Milwaukie, though not with spasmodic steps. The demand during the year 1855 for building lots exceeded that of any former year. The sales of this class of property have been from three to four millions of dollars. Mr. Aiken estimates the general rise on city lots at from 25 to 50 per cent for the whole year 1855.

INSURANCE COMPANIES.—There are three in the city. In marine insurance the Commercial and Merchants Mutual do a large business, their receipts amounting to about \$225,000 for the year 1855, and their losses amounting to about \$115,000. They both declared good dividends at their annual meetings in Feb., 1856. The United States is a young company, but does a good business, and declared paying dividends.

RAILROADS.—The Milwaukie and Mississippi Railroad connects Prairie Du Chien with Milwaukie, a distance of 190 miles. The La Crosse and Milwaukie Railroad, connecting the two places, is 108 miles in length. The Milwaukie and Watertown road is 14 miles in length, intersecting with roads to Madison, &c. The Green Bay, Milwaukie and Chicago

Railroad, commonly known as the Lake Shore Road, has been in operation about eight months for passenger business, and about one month of 1855 for freight. In the absence of the Annual Report of the road and of any extended freight business, we are unable to give any report of the business of this road. It is sufficient to say that the officers have more than realized the most sanguine expectations of its profitability. As an accommodation to the traveling public, to Milwaukie and Chicago, it is indispensable. One of its important features is the winter freighting accommodations which it gives to merchants, enabling them to bring forward additional supplies of merchandise, as the demand may seem to require. It also proves a successful rival to the Lake steamers, proving that additional facilities for travel creates intercourse between cities and States.

This road is to Wisconsin what the Hudson River Road is to New York.

The Board of Directors of the Milwaukie and Mississippi Railroad declared in 1856 a dividend on their last six months' business of 5 per cent in cash, and seven per cent in stock, making, with the 5 per cent cash dividend in July, 1855, a total for the year of seventeen per cent. The dividends on stock, standing on the books of the company at Milwaukie, are payable on and after the 1st of February, 1857.

The earnings of this road have been, by months, for the years 1854 and 1855, as follows:—

	1855.	1854.
January	\$33,247 00	\$23,224 29
February.....	26,508 00	26,192 33
March.....	30,456 28	20,773 98
April.....	33,008 83	18,318 45
May.....	66,944 16	41,751 31
June	65,127 39	45,164 90
July	47,158 14	35,555 54
August.....	55,095 81	32,324 63
September.....	87,764 93	60,153 64
October.....	112,162 41	66,875 31
November.....	84,182 94	55,138 96
December.....	49,888 05	29,578 45
Total earnings.....	\$691,843 94	\$465,051 19

Milwaukie is remarkable for the rapidity of its growth, which has not been surpassed, if equaled, by any of the Western towns. It maintains intimate relations with a region to which a large emigration is flowing—a region which, a few years ago, was a solitary waste, or field of savage warfare, but is now appropriated to the peaceful pursuits and liberal institutions of civilized society. The place was settled in 1835, and incorporated as a city in 1846. The population in 1840, according to the census, was 1754; in 1850, 29,061; and now, in 1856, it cannot be less than 45 or 50,000.

Art. V.—THE CAUSES OF MARINE DISASTERS.

The marine disasters of 1853-54, if we take into account the number of lives lost, and the value of merchandise and other property destroyed, is almost, if not quite, without a precedent in the annals of navigation. A writer in the *Philadelphia Bulletin* takes a practical view of the subject, and his suggestions are well worth considering. With a view of exciting an interest in a subject of so much importance to the interests of commerce, and the "higher law" of humanity, we give place in the *Merchants' Magazine* to the well-timed remarks and suggestions of the *Bulletin's* correspondent:—

Having improved, by adequate measures, the condition and character of the vessels themselves, and secured the services of more competent masters, the next desideratum is to procure more efficient and larger crews. Without good seamen, and enough of them, the finest ship and the most skillful officers must in vain struggle against the elements. 'Tis impossible to avert disaster, if there is not even physical strength enough to handle the ship, and if, as is now generally the case, the men are ignorant of their duty, and besides unwilling to discharge it when able to do so. The scarcity of seamen has in fact become a national evil of the most serious magnitude. The government finds extreme difficulty in manning even one ship, though paying a liberal bounty to all who will enlist. I question whether it would be possible to obtain a crew of even the most inferior quality, for an ordinary sized squadron, under twelve months at least. In the merchant service no less difficulty is experienced. The best and most valuable ships are daily sent to sea with less than the full complement of men allowed them under even the present restricted system. Four-fifths of their crews, moreover, are foreigners of the lowest and vilest stamp, and one-half or more of these, landsmen. Disasters similar to that which befell the British ship *Tayleur*, are by no means rare. Of this vessel it is reported that the inefficiency of her crew was the chief cause of her loss—15 only out of 50 men were able seamen.

The crew included Chinese and Lascars, who were unable to understand the English language, and the orders, therefore, could not be executed. The vessel is said to have drifted about at the mercy of the winds and waves for several hours before the wreck. The loss of life was frightful; out of 660 only 280 were saved; 250 women and children were drowned. Many of our vessels are exposed to a similar risk, and I have no doubt not a few have been lost from just the same cause. 'Tis peculiar to the English and American nations to pay the least regard to the qualifications of both their shipmasters and crews, because, I presume, they can best afford to pay for marine losses. Instances have frequently come under my own observation, in which not more than two seamen could be found among a crew of six or eight men, and but one of these two able to box a compass, or tie a reef-knot; and a sailor only by comparison with his more ignorant shipmates, the master, in fact, not knowing how to clew up a top-gallant sail properly; and the evil is daily becoming worse. 'Tis a common question, "what has become of the sailors?" Doubtless the present scarcity is in part owing to the discovery of gold in California and Australia, and the consequent inducements held out to seamen to make their fortunes on shore. 'Tis estimated that upwards of 600 vessels, mostly square-rigged, have doubled Cape Horn since 1848, of which number a large proportion have never returned, chiefly for want of men to bring them back. These ships have generally been wrecked, or suffered to rot in the harbor of San Francisco, while their crews are lost to the commerce of the country. The war in Europe also employs an unusually large number of sailors, but neither of these reasons furnish the true answer to the question, and besides will only produce temporary effects. The very fact that the commerce and the navy of the country can be thus crippled by the withdrawal of even a large portion of our seamen, is in itself proof that we need more, and especially that we need the adoption of

some plan whereby such evils may not be of frequent recurrence. It is clear, that unless measures be at once devised whereby we can supply the places of the seamen thus withdrawn, we shall, ere long, be without any at all. Of those who are now employed on shore in California, &c., or in the British navy, it may be fairly presumed the largest portion will never return. We must look, then, to the creation of a new generation of sailors. We shall otherwise be brought to a stand in our progress towards commercial supremacy, by the want of men to carry on the work—like a successful general who, on the field of victory, and in the midst of triumph, is arrested by the disappearance of his army. Since commencing the discussion of this subject, I learn that the Marine Society of New York has drawn up a memorial to Congress, requesting the passage of a law by which every vessel shall be required to ship a certain number of apprentices, proportioned to her tonnage.

This measure, if adopted and enforced, will prepare the way for securing, during the present generation, a fine body of native seamen; and I hope the mercantile community will urge its passage by Congress, before their adjournment. Let the bill further provide that the most promising and deserving of these apprentices be sent to a nautical school, where they may be educated in the higher branches of their profession, with a view to the command of vessels, each master being required to report their individual character and progress to the owner of the vessel in which they may be shipped. Then if Congress will not, or can not, provide for the establishment and maintenance of a nautical school, let it be done by private enterprise and contributions. A movement in this direction has been already made in Searsport, Me., where a few energetic shipmasters and public-spirited citizens have founded a school for educating young men for the sea. If, according to the *London Shipping Gazette*, "the empire of the seas must before long be ceded to America," 'tis certainly the policy of the government to take this matter in hand; but if they will not, or can not, then I say let owners and underwriters, and the patriotic generally, undertake and prosecute the work.

Encouragements should be held out to the bold and hardy young men of our country to select the sea as their scene of life and usefulness, and this they will do, and in great numbers, too, if advantages such as are proposed should be secured to them. While liberally-patronized schools are established and sustained throughout the country, to meet the necessities of almost every other class of our citizens, none (with the single exception referred to,) have been provided for the sailor. The boy whose taste and ambition lead him toward the ocean, must educate himself for his arduous and most useful calling, or assume its responsibilities (second to none other) destitute of the knowledge which is absolutely essential to their proper discharge. The youth of our country are thus invited and prepared to enter any and every other line of life; educated, too, on the most liberal scale, at public expense; while those who would be sailors are, in fact, deferred from their purpose by the want of means and opportunity of qualifying themselves for the profession of their choice; a profession which, at no time inferior either in honor or utility to those which are fostered by public care, is at this particular crisis, in some respects, perhaps, the most important to our national interests. Let schools for sailors, then, be established at once, and let efforts be made to induce young men to enter into the merchant service. The expense, even if they be entirely free schools, will be more than repaid, and that soon, by the increased security to life and property at sea which will ensue, while provision will thus be made for the permanent supply of seamen proportioned to the increasing demands of commerce.

To meet present necessities, however, there are other measures which should be adopted. The plans suggested for the creation of a new and better class of seamen are rather prospective than immediate in their results. Notwithstanding the actual deficiency as to numbers from which commerce now suffers, our vessels may be supplied with far better average crews, if the present system of shipping men were abolished. In no department of trade does such an anomaly exist as that which prevails in reference to this point. To purchase an article without inspection, or to pay for what is not received, is peculiar to ship owners. They employ

men as sailors who are not sailors—they hire laborers as able-bodied and efficient who are feeble and impotent, and then besides pay them in advance for work not yet performed, thus giving a premium for desertion and consequent loss. Why should the responsibility of supplying a crew be left with persons who have no direct interest in the matter at all? whose only care is to secure to themselves the payment of a debt which, in nine cases out of ten, is only a fraud on the sailor? The shipment of seamen should be at once taken out of the hands of the landlords, and the payment of advances stopped. Until this be done, it will be vain to expect any improvement in the quality of seamen, and the rates of advance will continue to increase.

The landlords will require more and more advance money, for the simple reason that the large sums paid nominally to the sailor furnish only so much increased plunder (significantly termed "blood-money") for the landlord. 'Tis a fact too monstrous to require proof, that the bills for grog, &c., contracted at the boarding-house, swallow up the far greater share of the sailor's advance, and these bills usually bear a remarkable proportion to the state of the shipping-market. Why merchants will aid in supporting such a system it is hard to imagine, unless they be supposed ignorant thereof. I would propose, then, for consideration, either that masters of vessels ship their crews themselves, which would enable them at least to know whether they were going to sea with sailors instead of landmen; or, as a more sure and efficient remedy for existing evils, that there be established in every port, (the large ones at least,) a shipping-house or rendezvous, conducted on a plan similar to that which the government pursues with regard to the navy. Let competent persons be appointed, whose duty it shall be to examine every man who offers to ship, as to his qualifications. No one who was not a sailor could then be palmed off on some luckless master as an efficient hand.* There should also be a surgeon to examine into the physical condition of the men, which would save owners the expense of maintaining a hospital on board their ships, and secure masters the services of the whole crew. The joint interest of owners, underwriters and masters, should unite them in adopting and carrying out this measure. It has been partially in operation at New Orleans for about six months, and already produced many good results.

The expense would be trifling compared with the sure benefit. Two or three retired masters could easily be found in every port, who would gladly and faithfully superintend the shipping and examination of the men, and the services of a surgeon for a few hours every day could be secured at no great cost. Instead of paying advances, which, as I have stated, rarely enrich the sailor, let other measures be adopted to induce men to ship. The system pursued by the whalers, is in principle an excellent one. Let the sailor have an interest in the voyage, by receiving a small portion of its profits. This will attach him to the ship, and stimulate him to do his duty. An honest owner would thus, too, secure the confidence and affection of a crew, and always be able to man his ship efficiently, while the influence upon the sailor will be most salutary, tending to beget in them habits of economy, and a healthful professional ambition. A retired shipmaster thus writes upon this point: "During the period in which I sailed before the mast, I made a voyage in a Salem East Indiaman to Sumatra and thence to Europe. On board that ship the custom prevailed of allowing to each of the crew a half a ton privilege, to be filled with the sailors' venture, the captain effecting sales on the seamen's account, without charge. Navigation was also taught on board by the officers. As the result of all this pains-taking to benefit seamen, nearly all of that crew subsequently became officers of vessels. Much of the evil now existing in reference to the scarcity of seamen, is owing to the fact that there is no tie connecting them with the owners and masters; no common bond of interest—they are only as day-laborers hired by the job."

They care for neither ship nor owner beyond the present; but let it be an established system that a successful voyage shall proportionately benefit the sailor, whose toils have contributed to the result, as well as the owners, and let every

* See an article in "Sailors' Magazine," November, 1853, p. 89.

man who exerts himself to do his duty, who is obedient and respectful to his officers and faithful to his employers, be rewarded by increased compensation, and by being retained in the employment of the merchant whom he has thus served, and there will be no difficulty in securing good and true men. Once make it the interest of the sailor to stick by his ship and his captain, and reward fidelity with a preference over mutiny and desertion, and you will furnish a motive to good conduct, which is at present but seldom regarded. The more intimately acquainted owners, masters, and seamen can mutually become, the better for all parties, and, therefore, as many inducements as possible should be devised to attach men to their ships.

The system of shipping for the run should be abandoned, as far as practicable, and whenever a crew is discharged, each man should receive a certificate of said discharge from the master, stating what his character and conduct had been during his term of service. These certificates should always entitle those who were commended, to a preference at the rendezvous. So long as sailors are all treated alike, the good faring no better than the bad, neither owners nor masters troubling themselves to find out which among them is worthy, or offering any reward for meritorious service, it were unreasonable to expect any material change for the better. Sailors will continue to wander about from port to port, indifferent as to the owner or master into whose hands chance or necessity may throw them, regarding all as equally their enemies, or at least as equally unconcerned about their welfare. A mere increase of wages will effect no improvement; and so long as the landlords fatten upon the spoils, merchants may expect to pay more and be worse served, for the result is to crowd our ships with foreigners, to increase anarchy, and to drive good men out of the service.

There are other suggestions that occur to me, in this connection, but the subject has already so far exceeded reasonable bounds, that I will now bring it to a close. If, by the means advised, the character and qualifications of masters and crews can be raised to the required standard, all other needed improvements will follow of themselves in due order and season. The construction and equipment of vessels will be rendered more perfect and complete. A good master and a smart crew will not be long in an unseaworthy craft. With properly educated masters, the necessary instruments and other appliances for skillful navigation will, as a matter of course, be supplied—thus prepared for the voyage, the risks of speed will also be greatly diminished. We shall be enabled to drive the ships, if not with entire safety, at least with greatly diminished peril; and we may then hope to restore order and obedience among the crews, the last but not the least of the alarming evils now prevalent. Insubordination stalks unchecked on the decks of our ships. Mutinies, desertion, and anarchy bid fair to destroy our commerce. Power has been taken from the officers, while yet nothing is being done to secure moral improvements among the men. In theory, it may be very well to rely on the good disposition of a crew; but in practice, the result has been that resistance to authority, conflicts between officers and men, skulking from duty, meeting of vessels, trials, and loss to all concerned, are now more frequent than ever before, and are, besides, multiplying daily.

Something must be done, and done speedily, or we must be prepared for even worse evils. That sailors should be, and can be controlled, without the lash, I have never doubted; nor am I an advocate for the restoration of this particular mode of punishment; but, at the same time, I am thoroughly persuaded that unless the character and qualities of seamen be improved by some measures similar to those proposed, we shall be compelled either to go back to the old code, or adopt one in reality more severe; or else—and it is an alternative as certain as alarming—surrender our ships to the command of their crews. If the public, during the last nine months, has lost upwards of \$9,000,000 by marine disasters, under the present system, to what an amount the losses of the next year will probably be swelled, is a problem that should be calculated. It is clear that there are evils to be corrected of the most portentous magnitude. A common interest should unite all good men together in devising remedies. I have assumed throughout my discussion of the subject that such is the general feeling. Increased se-

curity of navigation is as profitable at least to the owner as to the underwriter. Each loss prevented is so much added to the chances in favor of the owner, and consequently lowers the rates of insurance; and it is self-evident that every dollar saved to the insurance office is saved to the public.

JOURNAL OF MERCANTILE LAW.

COLLISION—LIGHTS—APPORTIONMENT.

United States Circuit Court. Before Judge Nelson. The schooner *Industry* vs. Robert J. A. and John Ward, owners of the schooner *Thomas Martin*. Appeal in Admiralty, September 11, 1856.

The libel in this case was filed by the owners of the *Industry* to recover damages against the *Thomas Martin* for a collision that happened in the neighborhood of Great Egg Harbor, several miles off the coast, in which the *Industry* was run down, and became a total loss. The collision took place about nine o'clock at night, on the 14th May, 1849, the *Thomas Martin* going down the coast, in ballast, bound for Norfolk, Virginia, and the *Industry* coming up heavily laden with corn, and bound for New Bedford.

The direction of the coast where the collision occurred is nearly northeast and southwest, along which the two vessels were moving in opposite directions. The wind was north, or west by north, and both vessels claim that they were close hauled—the *Industry* on the larboard, and the *Thomas Martin* on the starboard tack; and, at the same time, each insists that she was the privileged vessel, and that the other had the wind free. The *Industry* further insists that she was bearing in a direction towards the land, so as to get into smooth water under a lee shore, and was necessarily, therefore, close hauled from the course of the vessel.

The *Industry* had a bright light on her fore rigging, and was seen by the hands on the *Thomas Martin* some fifteen minutes or more before the collision; and as the combined speed of the two vessels was some ten or eleven miles an hour, the vessels must at this time have been between two and three miles apart. The *Thomas Martin* had no lights, and she was not discovered by the hands on the *Industry* till within a few minutes before the collision occurred. The night was cloudy and the sky overcast, and although there is some discrepancy as to the degree of darkness, it seems to be generally agreed that a vessel without lights would not be discovered beyond half a mile. Several of the witnesses fix the distance considerably short of this. At half a mile's distance the two vessels, with their combined speed, would meet in some three minutes. Both vessels claim that when they saw each other, the approaching vessel was to the leeward, and continued so till the moment of the collision; and, as a consequence of this collision, each, in the emergency, putting the helm hard down, both luffing into the wind, and into each other. The better opinion is, that if either of the vessels at this time had bore away, and the other had put his helm hard down, the collision would have been avoided.

Judge Judson, who heard the cause below, dismissed the libel, holding that the *Industry* was in fault in not putting her helm to port, instead of hard down, and bearing away before the wind. The learned judge arrived at this conclusion upon the application of the nautical rule, which is well settled, that when two sailing-vessels are approaching each other, both having the wind free, and consequently the power of readily controlling their movements, the vessel on the larboard tack must give way, and each pass to the right; and the same rule governs vessels sailing on the wind, and approaching each other, when it is doubtful which is to windward.

I agree to this conclusion, as I am inclined to think, according to the evidence of the hands on the *Industry*, when properly weighed, her position was such in relation to the other vessel, that her helm should have been ported, and she should

have passed to the right, instead of luffing into the wind with the idea of passing on the other side.

But I am unable to concur with the Court below in the other branch of the case, namely, that the *Thomas Martin* was not in fault. I do not intend to disturb the general usage that prevails—both in narrow rivers and open seas—that sailing-vessels are not bound to carry lights when under way at night. This usage has long prevailed, and has been recognized, to a certain extent, by the courts generally in this country and in England. It was said, on the argument, that the rule had been recently changed in England by the *Trinity Masters*. The soundness and propriety of the usage have often been questioned heretofore by eminent judges, both in England and this country. The fault, I think, chargeable upon the *Thomas Martin*, is her neglect to show a light after she discovered the light of the *Industry*. If she had done so, there is every reason for believing the collision would not have occurred. As we have already shown, at this time the two vessels were from two to three miles apart, and within this distance, while running with the combined speed only of ten or twelve miles the hour, if each vessel had seen the other, it would have been strange if they could not have avoided the meeting. Although the night was not unusually dark, yet the sky was so overcast and cloudy, that it is admitted a vessel could be seen without a light not exceeding half a mile. While, therefore, the hands on the *Thomas Martin* had fifteen minutes more time and the distance of some two-and-a-half miles running within which to adopt the proper measures for avoiding the *Industry*, the hands on board of her had only some three minutes' time and half a mile's distance, within which to adopt the like measures. The practice of showing lights when a vessel is approaching in a dark or cloudy night, is common among prudent and skillful navigators, and has frequently been a subject of commendation by the courts, and taken into consideration in determining cases of this description. Its fitness and propriety are too obvious to require illustration or argument. This case furnishes a striking exemplification of its necessity, and the misfortune attending its neglect. The danger was impending almost at the moment of the discovery of the *Thomas Martin*, and this from neglect in not showing a light at the proper time.

I am also inclined to think the *Thomas Martin* in fault for racing with the schooner *John Cunningham* on that night. She had all her sails set, with a pretty fresh wind, and was running at a rate of speed, and under circumstances that cannot well be justified, considering the character of the night. This vessel had passed the *Cunningham*, and was some two miles ahead at the time, which the counsel supposed put an end to the racing. But the struggle was to see which vessel could reach Norfolk ahead; and this accounts for all sails being kept set in the night, when most of the vessels running the course at the same time had taken in their light sails, in consequence of the freshness of the wind.

Upon the whole, I think both vessels in fault, and that the loss must be apportioned.

LIBEL BY STEAMBOAT TO RECOVER DAMAGES FOR COLLISION ON NORTH RIVER.

In United States Circuit Court, October, 1853. Before Chief Justice NELSON. The steamboat *Splendid* vs. the scow *Globe*. His honor delivered the following opinion on an appeal from Judge Betts, sitting in the Court below, as Admiralty Judge:—

NELSON, C. J.—The libel was filed in this case by the steamboat against the scow, to recover damages for a collision that occurred on the North River, on the 6th November, 1850, about 11 o'clock at night, opposite the Twin Brothers, a ledge of rocks a little below Cold Spring.

The steamboat was going up the river with a load of passengers for *Hamburgh*, her place of destination, and the scow was descending with a cargo of lumber. The scow struck the steamboat nearly head on against her stern, a little to the starboard, knocking the stem out and breaking the planks, so that she was obliged to be run on to the west shore, where she filled and sunk.

The testimony is quite contradictory in the case, in respect to the management and course of the respective vessels; the persons on the steamboat maintaining that as she rounded Magazine Point, and was in her usual course for Cold Spring, one of her stopping places, and on the eastern shore of the river, the scow, in descending the river on a course off her larboard bow, suddenly changed it more easterly, and persevered in the same until the collision occurred, while those on board the scow insist that she pursued her course down the river, giving a wide berth to the steamboat to pass on her larboard side; but that as the two vessels approached each other, the steamboat took a sheer to the west, and persevered in it till a collision was unavoidable. The night was very dark, and the wind fresh from the northwest, the scow moving from five to six knots an hour, and the steamboat about eight. There were four hands on board the scow—the captain, first and second pilots and steward, all of whom saw the steamboat at a considerable distance, and were on the look-out from the time she was first discovered until the collision, who concur in maintaining the position and course of scow and fault of the steamboat. While on the other side, the pilot was the only person on board who saw the scow, until the moment of the collision. In this conflict of evidence, whatever may be the real truth of the course and management of the vessels preceding, and at the time of the accident it is impossible for us to say, as the case stands, that the scow was in fault, so as to hold her responsible for the consequences. The misfortune of the steamboat is, that under the circumstances of the night and weather, she had no proper look-out on board, and, hence, in addition to this neglect of prudence and of the established nautical rule, she is deprived of the usual and most important witness on these occasions, as to the position and course of the two vessels. Although the pilot may be a witness deserving great consideration in respect to the course of his own vessel, he is not, from the necessity he is under, of attending specially to his own peculiar duties, the best witness in respect to the position and course of the approaching vessel, in a dark and cloudy night. A competent look-out, at a station the most favorable to discharge his duty, is much more reliable under such circumstances. The scow has decidedly the advantage in this respect. Her master, in consequence of the darkness of the night, gave his helm to the pilot, and took the post of look-out himself; and, as a consequence, is enabled to give us a clear and intelligible account of the circumstances that led to the unfortunate accident; and he is confirmed by the other hands on board; and, also, as far as they go, by hands on board the sloop "Index," in the vicinity at the time.

The gravamen of the libel is, that while the steamboat was on her course N. E. to Cold Spring, and passing in a direction as near the Twin Brothers as was safe, the scow changed her course from her direction down the river to the eastward, which compelled the former to slow and stop, to avoid running upon the rocks, which had the effect to change her position, by swinging her stem somewhat more up the river, or westerly; and, while in this crippled condition, she was run into by the scow, which at the time had the wind free, and might have borne further towards the middle of the river. But the difficulty is, the weight of the proofs is against this theory.

No persons having been stationed on board the steamboat to look out, the night being dark, and none of the hands but the pilot having seen the scow till in the midst of the alarm upon the ringing of the bells to slow and stop, we have no intelligible or reliable account of the transaction from her; and the persons on the dock at Cold Spring knew nothing about it as the night was too dark for them to see it.

It has also been urged that the scow made a wrong manuever at the time of the collision, by ordering the man at the helm to keep hard away, thereby bearing more to the eastward; but the hands on the scow all agree that this order was given from the steamboat, and was followed at the moment of the peril, in deference to the supposed superior opportunity and skill of those on board of her.

Without pursuing the examination of the case further, I am satisfied the decree of the Court below is right, and should be affirmed with costs. In the Court below Judge Betts dismissed the libel.

LIBEL TO RECOVER DAMAGES FOR MERCHANDISE SHIPPED FROM HAMBURGH TO NEW YORK.

United States Circuit Court. Before Judge Nelson. Decision on appeal from the Judge at Admiralty. Sept. 15, 1856. The Bark Colombo vs. Otto Dill *et al.*

The libel was filed in this case by Dill and others, to recover damages for an injury to one of the casks of bristles in a cargo shipped from Hamburg to this port. The libel avers that the goods were shipped under a bill of lading, in which the master acknowledged the receipt of the goods on board the vessel in good order and condition, and engaged to deliver them in like good order and condition to the consignees. The answer denies the allegations in the libel. The cask in question was one in thirteen shipped to the libelants, each containing some eight hundred pounds of bristles, and worth about two hundred dollars. The casks are slightly made in the form of barrels or hogsheads, covered by matting, and well secured with cords around the body and ends. The carman who carried the goods from the ship went into the hold of the vessel to assist in taking them out; when he pressed his foot upon the cask he discovered it was broken. It did not appear injured till he put his foot on it, and it could have been raised from the ship without discovering the break. The cask was found broken at the bilge, when the matting was removed, after delivered at the store. The bill of lading was not proved either in the court below or in this court, and I entertain strong doubts if it should be regarded as a part of the case. The clerk who testifies it was received from the shippers at Hamburg by the consignees at this port, in a letter, speaks only from hearsay, not of his own knowledge; and even if he did, his evidence can hardly be regarded as a proof of its execution by the masters. The delivery of the goods by the masters to the consignees named in it, may raise an implication in favor of the genuineness of the instrument. But the evidence is very loose, and might be abused if allowed as generally satisfactory. I do not mean, however, to put my opinion upon this point of the case. The bill of lading produced contains the clause "weight and contents unknown." When the matting and ropes were removed, the bristles in the cask were found to be very much deranged and the bunches broken and in confusion, so that it would be difficult to assort them. Now, as I understand the effect of this clause in the bill of lading, there is no admission by the masters as to the goods beyond that visible to the eye, or from handling the casks or boxes, or outside protection, whatever it may be. If it does not mean this I am not aware that any effect can be given to it. (12 How., 272.) It is observed by Mr. Abbot, (Abbot on ship, p. 339,) "that if there is any dispute about the quantity or condition of the goods, of if the contents of the casks or bales are unknown, the words of the bill of lading should be varied accordingly." As far as my experience goes, I think this effect of the clause is in accordance with the general understanding of those concerned in the carrying of goods, shippers and owners. When, therefore, a question arises as to the condition of the contents of casks or bales, or cases, where this clause is inserted in the bill of lading, the burden rests upon the shippers, in the first instance, to prove the condition of the goods at the time of shipment; and I remember several cases before me in which commissions were executed abroad, and an elaborate inquiry made on his behalf for the purpose of establishing the fact. If the external covering of the goods is damaged, accounting for the injury to the contents, then the evidence may be dispensed with. The admission in the bill of lading would be *prima facie* sufficient. It was said on the argument, that the external covering or protection, in this case, was damaged, and that, if in this condition at the time the goods were shipped, the master must have known it, or at least is chargeable with knowledge. But I am not satisfied that this is a just or reasonable conclusion from the evidence. The carman states that the cask, apparently, was externally uninjured, and that it might have been raised from the hold without discovering the break, and if so, it might have been stored there without discovering the fact. Indeed, it appears from the evidence, that the covering of this cask with the mat, well secured with cords both around the body and end, would prevent any discovery of the break, unless there was some special

examination. It seems to me, therefore, that the case is one in which effect should be given to the clause in question, and in which the burden lay upon the libelants to prove the condition of the contents at the time the goods were delivered on board the ship; and that, in the absence of such proof, the carrier is not properly chargeable for the condition of the contents. It would be very unjust to charge him, if they were delivered to the consignee in the condition received on the ship, and for aught stipulated on the bill of lading we think they have been. Decree reversed with costs.

SEAMENS' WAGES—SERVANTS FOR HIRE.

In the United States Circuit Court, (New York, Sept., 1856,) before Judge Nelson. The Ship Buena Vista *agt.* Thomas Bolton. Appeal in Admiralty, September 9, 1856.

NELSON, C. J. This was a libel filed against the ship for seaman's wages. Bolton shipped at the port of Callao, in Peru, as steward of the vessel, on her voyage from that port to the port of New York, at the rate of fifty dollars per month, and signed the usual shipping articles. Some two months wages were advanced, and the libel is filed to recover the balance, which would be eighty dollars, at the agreed rate.

The defence set up is, that Bolton misrepresented his fitness and qualifications as steward, and also that he was unfaithful, and grossly inattentive to his duties on board the vessel during the voyage. The proofs in the case are all one way, establishing utter incompetence and unskillfulness as steward of a vessel, and also willful negligence, and inattention to his duties after repeated warnings and admonitions by the officers of the ship.

The answer given to this evidence is, that the master, under the facts stated, should have discharged the libellant, and that, inasmuch as he was continued in employment as steward for the voyage, according to the agreement, and until its termination, the defence is unavailable. We agree, that if it had been shown in the case that the masters, after having discovered the unfitness of the seaman for the duties for which he shipped, had an opportunity to discharge him from the vessel, or, from the condition of his crew, might have disrated him, and put another in his place, it would be unreasonable, if not unjust, to permit a defense of this description. But there is no such evidence before us. In the case of shore duty, or duty upon coasting vessels, we should be strongly disinclined to encourage a refusal to pay full wages where the period of employment had been worked out. But a voyage at sea is different. There may be no opportunity to discharge the seaman from the ship, or the complement of hands may not be such as to dispense with the service, unless a substitute could be procured, and if disrated or discharged, under circumstances in which he could not be put ashore, he must be supported the remainder of the voyage. In all such and like cases, the only protection of the master and owners against imposition, or willful negligence of the seaman, would seem to be to permit the defense set up here, namely, an abatement of wages. Hands obtaining employment of a special character on board a vessel, as steward or able-bodied seamen, are responsible for reasonable skill as such, and acquaintance with their duties, and for an honest and faithful discharge of them.

There is no difference in this respect between the condition of seamen and any other description of service for hire. Courts are more indulgent in the case of seamen's contracts, from a consideration of their dependent condition, and we would not lightly interfere in a claim for wages after service for the period stipulated in the articles.

The learned Judge Ingersoll, who decided this case, thought the master should have discharged the libellant, and that the defence was not available after his continuance in service during the whole period contracted for. For the reasons above stated I am unable to concur in that opinion.

Decree reversed and libel dismissed with costs.

PROVISIONS OF THE PASSENGER ACT OF MARCH 3, 1855, IN RELATION TO STEERAGE PASSENGERS.

In the United States District Court, (California,) at the suggestion of Colonel Inge, United States District Attorney, Mr. Justice McAllister delivered a special charge to the Grand Jury on the construction of the provisions of the Passenger Act of March 3, 1853.

His Honor said, since the year 1819, about which time there was a press of European immigration to this country, Congress has passed various laws in relation to the carriage of passengers in vessels. When, in the course of circumstances, such measures became matters of great necessity, Congress followed out the legislation on the subject by an act in the year 1847, and different acts in the ensuing years—all these acts having for their object the safety and the health of passengers. The act of the 3d of March, 1855, repeals, and, as it were, codifies all the laws passed by Congress in relation to the transportation of passengers by sea. This act was passed by Congress on the last day of its session, and its provisions are somewhat obscure, and, to a certain extent, difficult of construction.

The Court proceeded to construe the law by a course of reasoning, and concluded that, under the provisions of the first section, two distinct offenses were specified:—

1. The taking on board a greater number of passengers than in proportion of one to every two tons of the vessel.
2. The following portion of the section referred to appropriated certain spaces on the deck for the use of the passengers, viz., sixteen superficial feet on the main and poop deck and deck-houses, and eighteen superficial feet on the lower deck, for each passenger. The proper construction of this provision was that if the whole number of passengers exceeded the aggregate amount of space appropriated, without reference to their actual distribution on the different decks, the master of the vessel was liable to prosecution for misdemeanor, and to pay a fine of \$50 for each passenger in excess.

His Honor referred to the 10th section of the law making the provisions relating to the space in vessels appropriated to the use of passengers applicable to the carriage of steerage passengers in steamers. According to the principle of a strict construction of penal statutes and the rule, *expressio unius, exclusio alterius*, his Honor decided that the number of steerage passengers which a steamer was entitled to transport, was to be estimated exclusively by the proportions of space, and not by the proportion referred to, of one passenger to two tons of the vessel.

CORN MERCHANTS—ACTION FOR BREACH OF CONTRACT.

Crown Court, Liverpool, April 5th, 1856—before Mr. Baron Martin. Smyth and others *vs.* Schilizzi the Younger.

This was an action for breach of contract, brought by Messrs. Moss, Thompson, Smyth & Co., corn merchants, against a Greek merchant of this town, who is the representative of a Greek house at Constantinople. The contract was between Mr. Blain, on the part of plaintiffs, and the defendant for the sale, by the former, of 2,500 sacks of flour, at 80s. per sack of 48 lbs., and, if the vessel required further cargo, an additional lot of 1,500 sacks, at 81s. per sack. It was stipulated that a first-class steamer should be employed to load the flour at Santander and deliver it at Constantinople, at £5 10s. per ton; if delivered at Liver-

pool or Havre, half that rate to be charged. It was also agreed that the vessel should be ready to load on the 1st December, and that if she were not ready by the 4th, Mr. Schilizzi could, if he chose, repudiate the contract. The steamer selected was the *Tamaulipas*. The steamer arrived at Liverpool on the 24th of November, but in consequence of some accident she had met with on her voyage, she was compelled on her arrival to go into the graving dock, and, though the repairs were conducted without cessation day and night, she was not ready for sailing before half-past three o'clock on the 4th of December. The weather, however, looked so foul that the pilot would not take the vessel out, and she did not actually sail until ten o'clock on the morning of the 5th of December. The defendant wrote to the plaintiffs, repudiating the contract, as the vessel had not sailed punctually. This letter they received about an hour after the steamer's departure.

The steamer called at Santander, took in the cargo, and went thence to Constantinople, where the cargo was sold "for the benefit of whom it might concern," and the loss entailed by this proceeding was estimated at £6,089, which it was sought now to recover.

On the part of the defendant, it was contended that the defendant had every right to repudiate the contract, and several statements were adduced to show that the vessel was not ready for sea even late on the evening of the 4th.

The jury, after some consideration, returned a verdict for the plaintiffs—damages £6,089.

NEW YORK LIEN LAW—MORTGAGEE ALLOWED TO DEFEND.

In the United States Circuit Court, September, 1856. Before Judge Nelson. *Albert Van Winkle agt. the steamboat "Jenny Lind."* Appeal in Admiralty, September 9, 1856.

NELSON, C. J. The libel was filed in this case to recover a running account of stores furnished the *Jenny Lind*, commencing on the 29th April, 1854, and ending 19th October following, amounting in the aggregate to the sum of \$156 27.

Dennis Harris, the claimant, was mortgagee of the vessel, and on application to the Court was allowed to come in and defend, and obtained a discharge of her from the attachment, on giving the usual bond.

The default in payment of one of the instalments due on the mortgage occurred on the 21st October, which gave to the mortgagee the right of possession. This happened the day after the levying of the attachment under the libel, and it has been urged that, as the claimant had no present right to the possession at the time the vessel was seized, he was improperly allowed to come in and defend. The position cannot be maintained. A party becoming interested in the subject matters of the litigation, after the institution of the suit, may be admitted to come in and protect his interest, if application is made within a reasonable time. This is a common practice both in the Admiralty and Equity Courts; and it would be very unjust, besides leading to vexatious litigation were the rule otherwise. The party would necessarily be driven to a cross suit.

It was also urged that a mortgagee had not such an interest in a vessel as would authorize him to appear and defend. How this would be, in a case where the right to the possession did not exist, it is not material to determine. In this case, the right of possession existed, and not only so, the vessel was reduced to actual possession, and the mortgagee had a right to hold it for the satisfaction of his debt.

It has also been urged that, assuming the mortgagee had the right to come in and defend, for the purpose of protecting his interest, still the libellant had shown a valid lien upon the vessel, which the court should enforce.

The *Jenny Lind* was a domestic vessel, and a lien for the stores depends upon the local law.

The statute of New York giving the lien provides that, if the vessel shall depart from the port at which she was when the debt was contracted, to some other port within the State, the debt shall cease to be a lien at the expiration of twelve days

after the day of such departure. During the period within which this account accrued, the *Jenny Lind* was engaged in the daily transportation of passengers and freight from this port to Haverstraw, touching at Sing Sing and Tarrytown, Westchester County. We have repeatedly held that voyages to this extent were departures within the meaning of the statute, and if the twelve days elapsed before libel filed, the lien ceased.

We think the decree below, dismissing the libel, was right, and should be affirmed.

COLLISION—LOOK-OUT—EXCESS OF SPEED.

United States Circuit Court. Appeal in Admiralty. September 12th, 1856. Before Judge Nelson. The schooner *Trader* *agt.* the steamboat *James Adger*.

The libel was filed in this case by the owners of the schooner *Trader* against the *James Adger*, to recover damages for a collision that occurred on the morning of the 1st April, 1855, off the Capes of the Delaware, in which the schooner was run down and became a total loss. She was on her voyage from St. Mary's, Georgia, to New York, and the *James Adger* from New York to Charleston, South Carolina. The wind was north-east by east, and the schooner close hauled, heading about east south-east. She was struck on her larboard bow, near the fore rigging, by the starboard bow of the steamer. The wind was light, between two and three knots the hour, the night rainy and hazy. The steamer was going at the rate of between nine and ten knots the hour. Her lights were discovered by the hands on the schooner when she was some three-quarters of a mile off, and a light was immediately shown in a conspicuous place by the mate of the vessel, who had charge of the watch at the time. There is some difference of opinion among the witnesses as to the darkness of the night, and the distance a vessel could be seen at the time of the collision, but we are quite satisfied that if a vigilant look-out had been kept on the steamer, the schooner with her light would have been discovered in season to have avoided her. And we may add, if the night was as dark as stated by some of the leading witnesses on behalf of the steamer, her rate of speed was too great for the reasonable security of sailing vessels in her track.

In answer to this, it is said that she is under a contract to carry the mail of the United States between New York and the city of Charleston, and to make the passage in sixty hours. But we cannot agree that this affords any excuse for a rate of speed which the law regards, under the circumstances, as dangerous to the lives and property of our citizens, or any exemption from the responsibility common to this species of our commercial marine.

There is another observation that should be made, concerning the conduct of the mate, who was in charge of the steamer at the time. On the report of the vessel to him as ahead, by the look-out, he immediately ordered the helm to be put hard-a-starboard, which was done. He admits the look-out did not report the course the vessel was heading, nor did he stop to ascertain the fact before he gave the order. He also admits, if he had known the position of the vessel he would have ported his helm, instead of putting it hard-a-starboard, and which would have carried the steamer under her stern, and, we may add, would probably have avoided the misfortune.

We think the decree below right, and should be affirmed.

AGENCY—WHEN PROMISE OF INDEMNITY WILL BE IMPLIED AGAINST PRINCIPAL FOR ILLEGAL ACT OF AGENT.

When an agent is employed by his principal to do an act which is not manifestly illegal, and which he does not know to be wrong, (as to take personal property, which, though claimed adversely by another, he has reasonable grounds to believe belongs to his principal,) the law implies a promise of indemnity by the principal for such losses and damages as flow directly and immediately from the execution of the agency. (*Moore vs. Appleton*. Supreme Court of Alabama.)

MARITIME LIEN—DEBT FOR MATERIALS.

United States District Court of the Northern District of Ohio, July Term, 1856. *Elijah K. Bruce vs. the tackle, apparel and furniture of the steamboat "America."* This case came on to be heard upon the following agreed statement of facts:—

It is agreed that Bruce, the libellant, is a citizen and resident of the State of New York. That the steamboat "America" was owned and enrolled in the State of Ohio at the time when the debt for materials sued for was contracted, and at the time she was lost off Point au Pelee, on Lake Erie. That said debt is unpaid, and would be a good and valid claim against the steamboat "America" were she still navigating the Lakes. That some time in November, 1854, said steamboat was sunk off Point au Pelee, in Lake Erie, and after vain endeavors to raise her, was dismantled by her owners, and such of her rigging apparel, furniture, machinery, &c., as could be removed, was taken from her; and for the purpose of getting the iron which composed her in part, she was burned to the waters' edge. That such of the apparel, rigging, furniture, machinery and iron as had been thus saved was brought to Cleveland and seized by the Marshal, in this suit. It is admitted that the steamboat "America," as a water craft, is wholly abandoned.

The case was argued by Messrs. Backus & Noble for libellant, who claimed that the liens of material men and seamen were equal and of the same nature and effect on the water craft, except the right of priority of the seamen in marshaling the liens; and they cited the *Mary Ann*, Ware's R. 103; the *Jerusalem*, 2, Gallison R. 346; *Conkling's Admiralty*, 14—52—60; *Abbot on shipping*, 179 and 292; *Ress R.* 784, *Wheat*, 438; 9th do. 409; 3, *Kent's Com.* 168; 1 *Paine C. R.*, 620; 2 *Paine*, 131; *Gilpin's R.*, 1 and 184, and 8, 12 and 13, *Rules of Admiralty Practice*.

Messrs Spalding & Parsons elaborately argued the case for the claimant, and contended that the lien of material men becomes extinct when the vessel is wrecked or derelict, and insisted that the rule of maritime law, that the "mariner's lien attaches and adheres to the last plank of the ship," should not apply to the liens of material men. They cited 1, *Haggard's R.* 227; *Abbot on Shipping*, 754; the *Elizabeth and Jane*, Ware's R. 41, and the *Eastern Star*, Ware's R. 186; the *Down*, *Davies' R.* 128; the sloop *Louisa*, 2, *Wood*, and *Minet R.* 56, and *Rule 12 of the Admiralty Practice*.

WILSON, Judge, Held—

1st. That the maritime lien of seamen for their wages, and material men for supplies and repairs, is a species of proprietary interest in the ship or vessel itself, and which, except on payment, cannot be divested by the acts of the owner or by any casualty.

2d. Such lien inheres to the ship and all its parts, wherever found, and whoever may be the owner. It attaches to the parts of a dismantled vessel the same as to a ship or vessel in *integra*.

3d. Wherever there is a maritime lien it may be enforced in the Admiralty by a proceeding *in rem*. And when the parts of a wrecked vessel are saved by the owners and not by the sailors, the Court, in marshaling the liens and disposing of the proceeds of the sale of the property, will order payment in discharge of the liens.

1st. To seamen.

2d. To material men.

Decree for libellant, accordingly.

CONTRACTS—IMPOSSIBLE CONSIDERATIONS.

One who contracts with a workman for services within his art or calling, has a right to rely upon his representations as to his skill; and although the law will not seek to compel a man to do that which is impossible, yet it will not allow the workman, after he has obtained money as the price of stipulated services which

he cannot perform, by false and fraudulent representations as to his skill in his business, to defeat a recovery for the deceit and consequent injury by setting up the impracticability of those services. *McGar vs. Williams*. Supreme Court of Alabama.)

COLLISION—LOOK OUT.

United States Circuit Court, (Sept. 13, 1856,) before Judge Nelson. The sloop *George M. Dallas* *agt.* the steamboat *New Haven*. Appeal in Admiralty.

This libel was filed by the owners of the sloop to recover damages for a collision, a little below Piermont dock, on the North river, on the night of the 7th of May, 1855, in which she was run down and sunk by one of the barges of the tow of the steamboat *New Haven*. The night was somewhat dark and cloudy. The sloop was coming down the river, the wind about S. S. E., with a moderate breeze, the steamboat ascending, making for Piermont dock. The hands on the sloop testify that she was coming down on the west shore of the river, and that the steamboat was ascending east of her, and took a sheer to the west that led to the disaster; while the hands of the steamboat aver that she was ascending on the east shore, and that the sloop was coming down east of them, and suddenly changed her course towards the west, crossing the bows of the steamer. Judge Ingersoll, who heard and determined the case below, held the steamer was in fault in not having a competent look-out stationed in the forward part of the boat, whose duty it was to desery and report to the proper officer vessels approaching at the earliest possible moment. She had no look-out, in the maritime sense of that term. The pilot and captain were on the pilot-house, which was some fifty feet from the stem of the vessel; at the time of the collision the pilot was at the wheel. There seems to have been no person on board whose especial duty was to look out for vessels ahead. We have repeatedly held, that this neglect was a fault in the navigation of a vessel that would charge her in case of the happening of a collision.

It is insisted for the respondents, that the sloop was in fault also, for not keeping her course, and that the sudden change of it led to the collision. We are not satisfied that any change of course took place on her part until the danger of a collision was impending: and further, we think, if there had been a competent and vigilant look-out on the steamer, the disaster might have been avoided. Judge Ingersoll has examined the evidence with great care, and has stated the reasons at large for his conclusion in charging the *New Haven*; and we fully concur in the views he has taken of the case, and the result to which he arrived.

It is a matter of surprise that masters of steamboats should be found so frequently neglectful of their duty in omitting to station a look-out at a proper place on the boat, especially in dark and cloudy weather, after the necessity of the observance of it has been so repeatedly enforced by the courts, and several condemnations of vessels for the omission. The duty was most manifest, in this case, considering the weather, and the moving mass upon the river of one hundred and sixty feet width comprising the steamboat and her barges. Decree affirmed.

UNAUTHORIZED DISCHARGE OF JURY EQUIVALENT TO AN ACQUITTAL.

The constitutional guaranty of a trial by jury "in all criminal prosecutions," includes the right to have the deliberations of the jury continued when once they have begun the trial and heard a portion of the evidence, until the occurrence of a sufficient legal reason for their discharge, and the chance of acquittal at their hands during all that time; and therefore the unauthorized discharge of a jury in any criminal case, either for a felony or for a misdemeanor, is equivalent to an acquittal. (*McCauley vs. the State*. Supreme Court of Alabama.)

Chilton, C. J., expressing no opinion.

COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE AND REVIEW.

THE SUPPLY OF BREADSTUFFS—THE SPECULATION IN SUGAR—THE TRADE IN FOREIGN FABRICS—THE REAL SOURCE OF DANGER TO THE PEACE AND PROSPERITY OF OUR COUNTRY—CONSERVATISM OF THE COMMERCIAL CLASSES—RECEIPTS OF GOLD FROM CALIFORNIA, AND DEPOSITS AND COINAGE—THE BANK MOVEMENT—IMPORTS OF FOREIGN GOODS IN AUGUST AND SINCE JANUARY 1ST—EXPORTS TO FOREIGN PORTS IN AUGUST, AND FOR EIGHT MONTHS—MOVEMENT OF DOMESTIC PRODUCE, ETC.

There has been a marked activity in the exports of breadstuffs from the Atlantic seaboard during the last month, thus realizing the anticipations expressed in our last. The harvests in England are much more satisfactory than expected, but the yield will fall below the average of the past five years. After the wheat was cut, hope and fear alternated for nearly two weeks, while the abundant rains prevented any attempt to gather it. At last the sun came out, the weather became settled, and the crop was saved. This has created a depression in the markets of this country, but it occurred at a very opportune moment, just as our farmers were becoming excited, and resolving to hoard for higher rates. There can be no question but what the United Kingdom will be a good customer for our surplus produce, and it is better that the demand should not be active enough to advance prices above a healthy limit. In other quarters the aspect of the export question is unchanged. Spain and Portugal are buying of us freely, while France must look to us for enough to make up her admitted deficiency.

There has been a decline of about 1c. in raw sugar, but prices immediately recovered again, and advanced above the highest point of the previous excitement. The supply is light, and nothing but a check to the general consumption from very high rates will equalize the supply and demand, and restore a moderate quotation.

There has been less of panic among the importers of foreign dry goods. Large portions of the stock have been sold off by auction, and this, with the rapid advance in raw silk, and increasing firmness in other raw materials abroad, has increased the courage of holders. The consumption will be increased by a decline in the cost of breadstuffs and other necessities, but we cannot give our trans-Atlantic friends any hope of realizing a profit upon the prices now demanded in Europe. If the quotations abroad are correct, staple fabrics might be reshipped from New York in bond, and sell to better advantage at the place of original shipment, than in the market for which they were intended.

The public mind has become quieted in regard to the difficulties with foreign countries, and no war now lowers on the horizon which bounds our view of Europe. But there is a question of danger nearer home; a question which some who love their whole country with an undivided affection, dare only revolve in their hearts, without trusting it to their lips. The inquirer who should begin with the opening history of the American Colonies, and trace their early trials, self-denial and victories down to the Declaration of Independence, and thence through the arduous struggle which resulted in the establishment of these United States under a glorious constitution, the almost unanimous choice of a brave, free and intelligent people,—would not conjecture that the first serious question concerning our national safety would come in the shape of disunion. We do not propose to enter into the discussion of the causes which have led to the utterance

of this fearful word. However interesting such an inquiry, it does not come within the province of a commercial editor. But the fact cannot be longer disguised that there is a growing alienation of feeling between various parts of this great confederacy, which must inevitably result in a disruption of the union, unless it can be checked by mutual concessions, and the restoration of the old fraternal regard. The commercial aspect of this question is of the utmost importance. The credit system is so interwoven with our prosperity that it cannot be shaken without creating wide-spread disaster. The confidence necessary to the perfection of this system is wanting. Men of all political parties look anxiously into the future, and however much they may bluster and assume a courage for political effect, they cannot avoid the sight of the thick darkness which shrouds every step beyond the prospect of disunion. Once snap the bonds that make us one nation, and more than half the wealth of the country is annihilated at a blow. No matter where the dividing line may be drawn, the ruin will be equally complete; for the great problem our fathers sought to solve in favor of free institutions will be decided against them, and the hopes of the oppressed throughout the world will fade like a dimly remembered dream. It is vain to say that the bonds cannot be easily severed. Every angry and bitter word uttered North or South, every unjust aspersion or ungenerous allusion—nay, every unkind thought cherished in the heart, weakens the ties that unite us, and add a spark to the fire that shall kindle into a flame of civil war. We think that politicians, intent upon their own selfish purposes, have been allowed too much influence upon the public mind; and our hope lies less in their forbearance than in their utter recklessness. They will go to such lengths as to expose the hollowness of their pretensions, and the fictitious character of their zeal; and the honest-hearted of all parties will shrink from the precipice to which mad factionists are leading them. The commercial classes have ever been the true conservators of the nation's peace. It may be that reasons, founded in their self interest, have urged them to this course, as they are among the first sufferers by the calamities of war; but there is something due, also, to the fraternal feeling fostered by their calling. The merchants and bankers who are brought into business relations with distant communities, soon learn to forget sectional distinctions; and with the largeness of heart engendered by this process, comes also a brotherhood of feeling with the whole human family.

The receipts of gold from California have not been quite as large since our last, but the total since January 1st is in advance of the corresponding date of last year. But little of this is now sent to the New York Assay Office, most of it being assayed and refined at San Francisco. The following will show the business at the Assay Office:—

DEPOSITS AT THE ASSAY OFFICE, NEW YORK, FOR THE MONTH OF AUGUST.

	Gold.	Silver.	Total.
Foreign coins.....	\$3,900 00	\$5,400 00	\$9,300 00
Foreign bullion	43,600 00	840 00	44,440 00
Domestic bullion	1,102,500 00	9,860 00	1,112,360 00
Total deposits.....	\$1,150,000 00	\$16,100 00	\$1,166,100 00
Deposits payable in bars			1,154,600 00
Deposits payable in coin.....			10,000 00
Gold bars stamped.....			1,892,768 60
Transmitted to U. States Mint, Philadelphia, for coinage.....			77,223 00

In the deposits are included \$300,000 of California Mint bars, but a much larger amount of the same description were exported directly, without being remelted at New York.

The following is a statement of the operations at the Mint of the United States in Philadelphia, during the month of August, 1856 :—

GOLD DEPOSITS.		
California gold.....	\$45,485 00	
Gold from other sources.....	14,815 00	
		<u>\$60,300 00</u>
SILVER DEPOSITS.		
Silver deposits, including silver purchases.....	\$195,750 00	
		<u>195,750 00</u>
Total deposits.....		<u>\$256,050 00</u>
RECAPITULATION.		
Gold coinage.....	111,782	111,782 00
Silver coinage.....	812,000	63,300 00
Copper coinage.....	191,152	1,911 52
Total.....	<u>1,114,934</u>	<u>\$176,993 52</u>

There remained on hand at the Mint of the United States, in Philadelphia, coins of the following denominations, at the close of business for the day, August 30, 1856 :—

GOLD.		SILVER.	
Double eagles.....	\$291,320 00	Dollars.....	\$10,946 00
Eagles.....	44,200 00	Half dollars.....	596,443 00
Half-eagles.....	26,070 00	Quarter-dollars.....	698,256 00
Quarter-eagles.....	430,430 00	Dimes.....	128,877 50
Three dollar pieces..	22,791 00	Half dimes.....	131,533 75
Dollars.....	33,953 00	Three cent pieces...	25,996 92
Bars.....	16,913 10	Cents.....	81
Total.....	<u>\$665,677 10</u>	Total.....	<u>\$1,592,053 98</u>
Balance on hand.....			<u>2,257,731 08</u>

The contraction of the banks has not been as rapidly as generally expected. The following is a statement of the weekly averages of the New York city banks :—

WEEKLY AVERAGES NEW YORK CITY BANKS.

Date.	Capital.	Loans and Discounts.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.
Jan. 5, 1856.	49,453,660	95,863,390	11,687,209	7,903,656	83,534,893
Jan. 12.....	49,453,660	96,145,408	11,777,711	7,612,507	77,931,498
Jan. 19.....	49,453,660	96,382,968	13,385,260	7,462,706	82,652,828
Jan. 26.....	49,692,900	96,887,221	12,733,059	7,506,986	78,918,315
Feb. 2.....	49,692,900	97,970,611	13,640,437	7,622,827	82,269,061
Feb. 9.....	49,692,900	98,344,077	14,233,329	7,819,122	82,848,152
Feb. 16.....	49,692,900	99,401,315	15,678,736	7,693,441	88,085,944
Feb. 23.....	49,883,420	100,745,447	15,835,874	7,664,688	87,680,478
March 1... 49,784,288	102,632,235	15,640,687	7,754,392	88,604,377	
March 8... 49,784,288	103,909,688	15,170,946	7,888,176	88,749,625	
March 15... 49,784,288	104,528,298	14,045,024	7,863,148	88,621,176	
March 22... 49,784,288	104,533,576	14,369,556	7,912,581	89,390,261	
March 29... 51,113,025	104,745,307	14,216,841	7,943,253	88,186,648	
April 5... 51,113,025	106,962,018	13,881,454	8,347,498	91,008,408	
April 12... 51,113,025	107,840,435	12,626,094	8,281,525	91,081,975	

Date.	Capital.	Loans and Discounts.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.
April 19...	51,113,025	106,765,085	12,958,132	8,221,518	90,875,737
April 26...	51,113,025	105,538,864	13,102,857	8,246,120	89,627,280
May 3...	51,113,025	105,325,962	12,850,227	8,715,163	92,816,063
May 10...	51,113,025	103,803,793	13,317,365	8,662,485	89,476,262
May 17...	51,113,025	103,002,320	12,796,451	8,488,152	88,720,415
May 24...	51,113,025	102,207,767	13,850,333	8,335,097	87,094,300
May 31...	51,458,508	102,451,275	14,021,289	8,269,151	86,775,313
June 7...	51,458,508	103,474,921	16,166,180	8,430,252	90,609,243
June 14...	51,458,508	104,168,881	17,414,680	8,360,733	91,602,245
June 21...	52,705,017	105,626,995	17,871,955	8,278,002	93,715,837
June 28...	52,705,017	107,087,525	17,069,687	8,250,289	93,239,243
July 5...	53,170,317	109,267,582	16,829,236	8,637,471	100,140,420
July 12...	53,170,317	109,748,042	14,793,409	8,405,756	95,663,460
July 19...	53,170,317	110,873,494	15,326,131	8,346,243	95,932,105
July 26...	53,170,317	111,346,589	13,910,858	8,386,285	92,365,040
Aug. 2...	53,658,039	112,221,563	14,328,253	8,646,043	93,847,317
Aug. 9...	53,658,039	112,192,322	13,270,603	8,676,759	92,220,370
Aug. 16...	53,658,039	111,406,756	12,806,672	8,584,499	92,013,229
Aug. 23...	53,985,068	110,188,005	12,914,732	8,588,413	90,127,223
Aug. 30...	53,985,068	109,373,911	12,965,236	8,589,745	87,776,242
Sept. 6...	53,985,068	109,560,943	13,098,876	8,887,860	89,350,154
Sept. 13...	53,985,068	109,579,776	12,281,387	8,741,064	88,044,074

We also annex a continuation of the weekly statements of the Boston banks :—

WEEKLY AVERAGES AT BOSTON.

	August 25.	September 1.	September 8.	September 15.
Capital	\$31,960,000	\$31,960,000	\$31,960,000	\$31,960,000
Loans and discounts.....	53,172,935	53,160,952	53,617,342	53,733,500
Specie.....	3,943,790	3,727,085	3,629,170	3,519,000
Due from other banks.....	5,569,574	5,561,102	6,020,707	5,928,000
Due to other banks.....	4,773,135	4,674,946	4,718,741	4,940,000
Deposits	15,782,309	15,643,629	15,941,013	15,703,000
Circulation	6,751,804	6,688,044	7,121,437	6,972,000

The imports of foreign goods at New York for the month of August were \$7,413,266 greater than for August, 1855, \$835,532 in excess of the very large total for August, 1854, and \$3,725,921 greater than for August, 1853. During the month, as in the corresponding period of 1854, upwards of four millions were thrown into warehouse, while in August last year nearly all the receipts were thrown directly upon the market. The imports of free goods show no material change. We annex a comparative summary :—

FOREIGN IMPORTS AT NEW YORK IN AUGUST.

	1853.	1854.	1855.	1856.
Entered for consumption....	\$16,788,352	\$17,479,992	\$13,899,758	\$18,375,986
Entered for warehousing....	2,226,299	4,123,787	1,356,428	4,136,716
Free goods.....	667,408	1,304,662	1,201,570	1,303,790
Specie and bullion	511,715	175,692	48,643	103,173
Total entered at the port....	\$20,193,744	\$23,084,133	\$16,506,399	\$23,919,665
Withdrawn from warehouse..	1,745,864	3,038,056	2,889,884	2,524,407

This makes the total imports at that port since January 1st \$57,175,131 greater than for the corresponding eight months of 1855, \$19,812,048 greater than for the same time in 1854, and \$19,829,102 greater than for the same period

of 1853. A considerable portion of this increase has been in goods entered for warehousing, as will appear from the annexed comparison :—

FOREIGN IMPORTS AT NEW YORK FOR EIGHT MONTHS, FROM JANUARY 1ST.

	1853.	1854.	1855.	1856.
Entered for consumption....	\$110,347,159	\$102,181,103	\$72,806,038	\$117,965,756
Entered for warehousing....	15,813,888	21,814,110	17,621,075	25,230,040
Free goods	10,386,526	12,348,863	9,763,868	13,675,437
Specie and bullion	1,611,231	1,781,782	571,794	1,066,673
Total entered at the port....	138,108,804	138,125,858	100,762,775	157,937,906
Withdrawn from warehouse.	9,972,966	14,882,932	17,160,118	15,629,611

The great increase in the imports, as compared with the same period of last year, is very evenly divided between dry goods and general merchandise, as will appear from the annexed very interesting summary :—

COMPARATIVE SUMMARY OF FOREIGN IMPORTS AT NEW YORK FOR EIGHT MONTHS, FROM JANUARY 1ST.

	1853.	1854.	1855.	1856.
Dry goods	\$67,348,005	\$66,898,081	\$43,026,641	\$71,990,039
General merchandise...	70,760,799	71,227,797	57,736,134	85,947,867
Total imports.....	\$138,108,804	\$138,125,858	\$100,762,775	\$157,937,906

We have now reached the point where the great decline in imports last year was checked ; and the increase henceforward will be much less rapid than throughout the last eight months, and it is possible the total in some of the remaining months of the year may show a slight decline. A part of the increase was expected, and needed, but the total stock of foreign merchandise of many descriptions is far above the wants of the trade.

We annex our usual tables, specifying the description of dry goods imported :—

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN DRY GOODS AT THE PORT OF NEW YORK FOR AUGUST.

ENTERED FOR CONSUMPTION.

	1853.	1854.	1855.	1856.
Manufactures of wool.....	\$3,605,759	\$3,354,380	\$2,552,263	\$3,867,718
Manufactures of cotton.....	1,548,745	1,508,019	806,606	1,490,021
Manufactures of silk.....	2,981,048	3,505,467	3,574,030	3,887,008
Manufactures of flax.....	712,342	755,333	507,196	724,075
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	516,007	648,620	638,912	821,341
Total.....	\$9,363,901	\$9,771,819	\$8,079,007	\$10,790,163

WITHDRAWN FROM WAREHOUSE.

	1853.	1854.	1855.	1856.
Manufactures of wool.....	\$345,553	\$788,165	\$402,640	\$583,959
Manufactures of cotton.....	86,119	322,066	128,779	118,004
Manufactures of silk.....	101,271	394,493	324,445	132,938
Manufactures of flax.....	14,672	73,536	99,286	38,764
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	10,699	33,155	33,016	15,994
Total.....	\$558,314	\$1,611,415	\$988,166	\$889,659
Add entered for consumption.....	9,363,901	9,771,819	8,079,007	10,790,163
Total thrown on the market..	\$9,922,215	\$11,383,234	\$9,067,173	\$11,679,822

ENTERED FOR WAREHOUSING.

	1853.	1854.	1855.	1856.
Manufactures of wool	\$270,368	\$815,636	\$95,269	\$455,059
Manufactures of cotton	132,527	300,869	47,272	172,872
Manufactures of silk	99,273	479,160	28,954	141,124
Manufactures of flax	47,881	175,742	28,434	122,496
Miscellaneous dry goods	12,436	45,862	23,312	11,379
Total	\$562,485	\$1,817,269	\$223,241	\$902,930
Add entered for consumption	9,363,901	9,771,819	8,079,007	10,790,163
Total entered at the port	\$9,926,386	\$11,589,088	\$8,302,248	\$11,693,093

The above shows that the total for August has been \$3,390,845 larger than for August, 1855, \$104,005 larger than for August, 1854, and \$1,766,707 larger than for August, 1853.

The following also specifies the imports of this class for eight months :—

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN DRY GOODS AT THE PORT OF NEW YORK FOR EIGHT MONTHS FROM JANUARY 1ST.

ENTERED FOR CONSUMPTION.

	1853.	1854.	1855.	1856.
Manufactures of wool	\$18,518,981	\$15,258,131	\$10,417,073	\$19,161,082
Manufactures of cotton	11,017,762	11,748,661	5,471,337	11,712,154
Manufactures of silk	23,660,502	20,671,340	14,831,814	23,373,656
Manufactures of flax	5,631,209	5,059,004	3,422,551	5,838,817
Miscellaneous dry goods	3,872,518	4,084,796	3,428,557	5,273,443
Total	\$62,700,972	\$56,821,932	\$37,571,332	\$65,354,102

WITHDRAWN FROM WAREHOUSE.

	1853.	1854.	1855.	1856.
Manufactures of wool	\$1,510,207	\$2,693,735	\$1,945,257	\$1,793,397
Manufactures of cotton	787,609	2,104,126	1,901,632	1,653,183
Manufactures of silk	1,109,643	2,193,154	2,157,878	1,600,737
Manufactures of flax	164,813	639,981	971,386	784,719
Miscellaneous dry goods	258,242	295,036	611,761	314,800
Total withdrawn	\$3,830,014	\$7,926,032	\$7,587,914	\$6,146,836
Add entered for consumption ...	62,700,972	56,821,932	37,571,332	65,354,102
Total thrown upon the market.	\$66,530,986	\$64,747,964	\$45,159,246	\$71,500,938

ENTERED FOR WAREHOUSING.

	1853.	1854.	1855.	1856.
Manufactures of wool	\$1,924,619	\$3,996,996	\$1,357,630	\$2,438,657
Manufactures of cotton	993,619	2,179,512	1,142,552	1,433,185
Manufactures of silk	1,214,821	2,817,373	1,670,228	1,688,628
Manufactures of flax	238,626	752,335	725,226	636,779
Miscellaneous dry goods	275,348	329,933	559,673	438,688
Total	\$4,647,033	\$10,076,149	\$5,455,309	\$6,635,937
Add entered for consumption ...	62,700,972	56,821,932	37,571,332	65,354,102
Total entered at the port ...	\$67,348,005	\$66,898,081	\$43,026,641	\$71,990,039

The above shows that the total receipts of dry goods since January 1st, are \$29,963,398 greater than for the corresponding eight months of 1855, \$5,091,958

greater than for the same time in 1854, and \$4,642,024 greater than for the same time in 1853.

The Exports also show a large comparative gain. The total shipments from New York to foreign ports for the month of August, exclusive of specie, are \$1,257,864 in excess of the corresponding total for last year, \$656,257 greater than for August, 1854, and \$915,043 greater than for August, 1853, as will appear from the annexed comparison:—

EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS FOR THE MONTH OF AUGUST.

	1853.	1854.	1855.	1856.
Domestic produce.....	\$4,450,383	\$4,487,619	\$4,281,481	\$5,612,828
Foreign merchandise (free).....	79,857	253,857	151,482	88,242
Foreign merchandise (dutiable)...	377,720	515,270	222,176	211,938
Specie.....	1,183,973	4,548,320	2,609,393	3,202,053
Total exports.....	\$6,181,933	\$9,805,066	\$7,264,532	\$9,115,056
Total, exclusive of specie.....	4,997,960	5,256,746	4,655,139	5,913,003

This makes the total exports from New York to foreign ports (exclusive of specie) since January 1st, \$11,573,738 greater than for the same time last year, \$9,192,185 greater than for the same time in 1854, and \$14,204,287 greater than for the same time in 1853.

The increase in domestic produce is still greater, but there has been a considerable decline in the re-export of foreign goods. We annex a comparative summary:—

EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS FOR EIGHT MONTHS, FROM JANUARY 1ST.

	1853.	1854.	1855.	1856.
Domestic produce.....	\$34,845,630	\$39,453,720	\$34,579,662	\$50,290,993
Foreign merchandise (free).....	1,090,526	1,218,460	3,440,596	680,750
Foreign merchandise (dutiable)...	2,865,901	3,151,979	3,422,348	2,044,601
Specie.....	13,763,567	23,656,639	22,607,512	23,748,539
Total exports.....	\$52,565,624	\$67,480,798	\$64,050,118	\$76,764,883
Total, exclusive of specie.....	38,802,057	43,824,159	41,442,606	53,016,344

We look for large exports, especially of domestic produce, throughout the remainder of the year. The cash revenue at the port of New York shows a large increase, and for the last eight months is greater than for any previous similar period in our history:—

CASH DUTIES RECEIVED AT NEW YORK.

	1853.	1854.	1855.	1856.
First 6 months.....	\$21,167,329 50	\$19,737,960 76	\$14,299,945 71	\$22,541,145 75
In July.....	4,640,107 15	4,045,745 78	3,787,341 95	5,441,544 27
In August.....	4,746,657 81	5,214,629 78	4,290,796 15	5,286,399 11
Total since Jan. 1st.	\$30,554,094 46	\$28,998,336 32	\$22,378,083 81	\$33,269,089 13

The money has accumulated in the Sub-Treasury far beyond the wants of an economical administration, and will probably continue to accumulate until some change is made in the Tariff.

We annex our usual comparative tables, showing the shipments of certain descriptions of domestic produce from New York since January 1st:—

EXPORTS OF CERTAIN ARTICLES OF DOMESTIC PRODUCE FROM NEW YORK TO FOREIGN
PORTS FROM JANUARY 1ST TO SEPTEMBER 16TH:—

	1855.	1856.		1855.	1856.
Ashes—pots....bbls	10,706	6,850	Naval stores....bbls.	519,931	379,909
pearls.....	1,872	962	Oils—whale....galls.	191,121	28,912
Beeswax.....lbs.	134,098	165,762	sperm.....	580,032	389,445
<i>Breadstuffs—</i>			lard.....	79,779	38,064
Wheat flour..bbls.	384,647	1,305,586	linseed.....	8,685	4,006
Rye flour.....	15,907	10,871	<i>Provisions—</i>		
Corn meal.....	37,620	56,855	Pork.....bbls.	129,596	118,886
Wheat.....bush.	152,313	4,177,281	Beef.....	53,744	58,640
Rye.....	12,911	1,170,938	Cut meats,lbs...	14,968,952	25,766,716
Oats.....	12,211	11,618	Butter.....	603,284	915,138
Corn.....	3,136,667	2,578,206	Cheese.....	2,983,805	1,250,134
Candles—mold..boxes	39,063	35,267	Lard.....	6,122,905	8,862,412
sperm.....	8,955	2,939	Rice.....trcs	12,523	28,708
Coal.....tons	7,752	5,453	Tallow.....lbs.	1,138,946	1,060,108
Cotton.....bales	200,496	150,218	Tobacco,crude..pkgs	23,741	28,349
Hay.....	4,174	3,161	Do.,manufactured,lbs	3,751,694	4,070,017
Hops.....	8,228	3,001	Whalebone.....	1,485,320	1,337,449

This table presents an immense increase in the shipments of wheat and flour, the former particularly, but a falling off in Indian corn. The latter is now going forward more freely, and we look for large shipments throughout the winter. It is said that the potato crop of Ireland is seriously injured, and if the damage is as extensive as now feared, there is nothing but this cereal which can supply the vacancy. There has been a decline in the exports of pork, but in other meat provisions the shipments are very large. The increase in cut meats is enormous. Lard has also gone forward freely, and is still in demand abroad, while the price at home advanced so as to come within the range of low grades of butter.

NEW YORK COTTON MARKET FOR THE MONTH ENDING SEPTEMBER 26.

PREPARED FOR THE MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE BY CHARLES W. FREDERICKSON, BROKER, NEW YORK.

Our cotton market, since the date of my last report, August 22d, has improved fully $\frac{3}{4}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$ ct. per lb. on all grades, owing to light receipts at the South, and small stocks in the shipping ports, together with reports of injury to the growing crop, already magnified to a reported positive injury of at least 200,000 to 300,000 bales. The transactions of the past month have been largely of a speculative character, and for home consumption. The quantity for export has been small, and confined principally to the continental ports. The English advices received have not been of as favorable a character as looked for, although it is expected that future accounts may represent a more favorable aspect for the trade here. The season thus far has opened at prices much beyond the views of prudent operators; and if maintained, must seriously affect the ratio of consumption both here and abroad. It is no proof that because the largest crop ever made has been profitably disposed of, that a smaller crop will readily command a relatively higher price. Low prices invariably extends the increase and consumption of the raw material;—and the millions of dollars invested in manufactures would have sought other channels of investment if cotton, as at present, was not to be had, unless at an advance of one hundred to one hundred and fifty per cent upon the cost of production.

The cotton crop just closed reaches 3,527,845 bales, being an increase over previous year of 680,506 bales. The total foreign export was 2,954,606 bales— increase over previous year, 710,397 bales, of which Great Britain took 1,921,386

bales, France 480,637 bales, north of Europe 304,005 bales, other foreign ports 248,758 bales. The amount taken by manufacturers north of Virginia 652,739—south and west of Virginia (estimated) 117,500 bales, being a total increase over previous year of 91,655 bales, an increase gratifying to the progress and extension of American manufactures, and indicative of the giant steps this national branch of industry is destined to exert, not only upon the cotton crop, but upon the machinery of Europe.

The sales for the week ending August 29th were 7000 bales, mostly for home consumption and the continent. Prices were firm at the close, under unfavorable crop accounts.

PRICES ADOPTED AUGUST 29TH FOR THE FOLLOWING QUALITIES:—

	Upland.	Florida.	Mobile.	N. O. & Texas.
Ordinary.....	10	10	10	10½
Middling.....	11½	11½	11½	11½
Middling fair.....	12½	12½	12½	12½
Fair.....	12½	12½	13½	13½

For the week ensuing, the sales reached 9,000 bales, at a slight improvement. Speculators were free purchasers, and the quantity on sale was much reduced by the indisposition of holders to accept of the following rates:—

PRICES ADOPTED SEPTEMBER 5TH FOR THE FOLLOWING QUALITIES:—

	Upland.	Florida.	Mobile.	N. O. & Texas.
Ordinary.....	10	10	10½	10½
Middling.....	11½	11½	11½	11½
Middling fair.....	12½	12½	12½	13
Fair.....	12½	13	13½	13½

A speculative demand existed during the week ending September 12th, and on sales of 10,000 bales there was an advance of ¼c. a ½c. per pound. The market closed firm, with a fair demand, at the following:—

PRICES ADOPTED SEPTEMBER 12TH FOR THE FOLLOWING QUALITIES:—

	Upland.	Florida.	Mobile.	N. O. & Texas.
Ordinary.....	10½	10½	10½	10½
Middling.....	11½	11½	11½	12
Middling fair.....	12½	12½	12½	13
Fair.....	12½	12½	13½	13½

The transactions for the week ending September 19th were limited by the small amount on sale and the firmness of holders. Prices had, however, an upward tendency; the sales were 7,500 bales, the market closing buoyant at the following:—

PRICES ADOPTED SEPTEMBER 19TH FOR THE FOLLOWING QUALITIES:—

	Upland.	Florida.	Mobile.	N. O. & Texas.
Ordinary.....	10½	10½	10½	10½
Middling.....	11½	11½	12	12½
Middling fair.....	12½	12½	13	13½
Fair.....	12½	13	13½	13½

For the week closing at date, under a continuation of unfavorable accounts as regards the gathering crop, and continued light receipts and advancing prices at the South, our market was active at a further advance of ¼c. a ½c. per pound. The sales for the week were estimated at 10,000 bales, the market closing, with a small amount on sale, at the following:—

PRICES ADOPTED SEPTEMBER 26TH FOR THE FOLLOWING QUALITIES:—

	Upland.	Florida.	Mobile.	N. O. & Texas.
Ordinary.....	10½	10½	10½	10½
Middling.....	12	12½	12½	12½
Middling fair.....	12½	12½	13½	13½
Fair.....	13	13½	13½	13½

JOURNAL OF BANKING, CURRENCY, AND FINANCE.

SAVINGS BANKS IN EUROPE.

The last Paris papers bring us an official report on the operation of the Savings Bank of Paris, and of similar institutions throughout France for the year 1855. The sum in hand in the Paris Bank, on the 31st of December, 1854, amounted to 48,182,475 francs, belonging to 212,308 depositors; the amount received was 26,826,352 francs, that paid out 28,064,504 francs—and there remained in hand on the 31st of December last 46,944,324 francs due to 216,032 depositors. The amount of deposits in the course of the year shows an augmentation of 4,358,860 francs in money, and of 4,000 in the number of depositors over the preceding year. This increase, considering the dearness of living, the high rents, the war, and other unfortunate circumstances, is remarkable. In 1854 only 14,439 of the total number of depositors were working men, while 16,157 of that class are included in the total of 1856. The number of savings banks in all France, including that of Paris, was 363, and the number of depositors 865,478—the amount of their deposits being 271,556,668 francs. As the population of the empire is 35,781,000, there was one depositor for every 41 persons. The proportion of depositors to the population varies considerably in the different departments. In England, Ireland, and Scotland, where savings banks are infinitely more developed, the number of them last year was 584, the number of depositors over 1,300,000 and the amount of deposits 822,324,000 francs; and the proportion of depositors to population was (the report only calculates the population at 26,000,000) one for every twenty persons, or rather more than double that of France. The general condition of the savings banks in Austria and the German States cannot, from the want of sufficiently precise returns, be ascertained; but at Vienna there was one depositor for every two and a half persons; in the kingdom of Bohemia, one for every sixty-four; at Berlin, one in twelve; Leipsic, one in five; at Frankfurt, one in ten; at Hamburg, one in six; and at Altona, one in three. As regards other parts of Europe, there is one depositor for every twelve persons in Denmark; one in three in Basle; rather less in Geneva and Neufchatel; one in twenty-seven at Turin, and one in forty-three at Madrid. In the United States the proportion is one to sixteen.

OF THE STOCKS AND COUPON BONDS OF VIRGINIA.

Among the laws passed by the Legislature of Virginia at its last session was, "an act providing for and regulating the issue of certificates of registered stock in lieu of coupon bonds." The only clauses of public interest are the following. The balance of the act refers to the duty of the Treasurer:—

"Be it enacted, that the holder or holders of any coupon bond or bonds of this Commonwealth, upon presenting the same to the Second Auditor, may have in lieu thereof issued to him or them a certificate or certificates as prescribed by the 44th chapter of the Code of Virginia, redeemable at the time said coupon bond is redeemable, and bearing interest at the rate of interest which the coupon bond bears, from the first day of January or July, preceding the issue of said certificate, to be paid semi-annually at the Treasury. The Treasurer of the Commonwealth with whom any bank now in existence, or which may be hereafter established, has or may hereafter pledge any coupon bond or bonds as security for the circulation

of such bank, may, with the assent of the bank, procure a certificate or certificates to be issued, in accordance with this act, to him in trust for the purposes for which the coupon bonds were deposited with him."

CINCINNATI RATES OF SIGHT EXCHANGE IN 1855-56;

ON NEW YORK AND THE EASTERN CITIES AND NEW ORLEANS, DURING YEAR ENDING AUGUST 31, 1856.

Week ending—		NEW YORK				NEW ORLEANS			
		1854-5.		1855-6.		1854-5.		1855-6.	
		P'm.	Dls.	P'm.	Dls.	P'm.	Dls.	P'm.	Dls.
September	7	1½	..	½	½
	14	1½	..	½	½
	21	1½	..	½	½
	28	1½	..	½	½
October	5	½	..	½	½
	12	1½
	19	1½	..	½	par	par
	26	1½	..	½	½	..
November	5	1½	..	½	½	..
	12	1	..	½	½	..
	19	3	..	½	par	par
	26	1½	..	par	..	1	..	½	..
December	3	1	..	½	..	1
	10	1	..	½	½	..
	17	1½	..	½	..	½
	24	1	..	½	..	1	..	½	..
	31	1	..	½	..	½	..	½	..
January	7	1	..	½	..	½	..	½	..
	14	1½	..	½	½	..
	21	1	..	½	..	½	..	½	..
	28	1	..	½	..	1	..	½	..
February	4	1	..	½	..	1	..	½	..
	11	½	..	½	..	1	..	½	..
	18	½	1
	25	½	..	½	..	1
March	4	½	..	½	..	1	..	½	..
	11	½	..	½	..	1	..	½	..
	18	½	..	½	..	1	..	½	..
	25	1	1
April	1	1	..	½	..	1	..	½	..
	8	½	..	½	..	1	..	½	..
	15	½	..	½	..	1
	22	½	..	½	..	½	..	½	..
	29	½	..	½	..	½	..	½	..
May	6	1	..	½	..	par	..	½	..
	13	1	..	½	..	par	..	½	..
	20	½	..	½	..	par	..	par	..
	27	½	..	½	..	par	..	½	..
June	3	½	..	½	½	..
	10	½	..	½	½	..
	17	½	..	½	½	..
	24	½	..	½	..	par	..	½	..
July	1	½	..	½	..	par	..	½	..
	8	½	..	½
	15	½	..	½	..	par	..	½	..
	22	½	..	½
	29	½	..	½
August	5	½	..	½	½	..
	12	½	..	½	½	..
	19	½	..	½	½	..
	26	½	..	½	½	..
	31	½

RATES OF EXCHANGE AT NEW ORLEANS.

The following table, showing the rates of exchange on London, Paris and New York, on the first of each month for three years past, (60 day bills,) is derived from the New Orleans Price Current :—

	1855-6.			1854-5.			1853-4.		
	London. P'm.	Paris. Per Doll.	N. Y. Dis.	London. P'm.	Paris. Per doll.	N. Y. Dis.	London. P'm.	Paris. Per doll.	N. Y. Dis.
Sept.	8½	5 15	2	9½	5 15	1½	9½	5 10	1½
Oct.	8	5 20	2	9½	5 12	1½	9	5 20	2½
Nov.	7½	5 30	2½	9½	5 12	1½	9½	5 12	2½
Dec.	7	5 25	2½	8½	5 15	2½	9	5 20	2½
Jan.	7½	5 30	2½	7	5 23	2½	8½	5 22	2
Feb.	6½	5 35	2½	7	5 25	2½	7½	5 25	2½
March.	8	5 25	2	8½	5 24	2½	7½	5 27	2½
April.	8	5 25	2½	9½	5 19	1½	8½	5 12	1½
May.	9½	5 19	2½	10	5 12	1½	9	5 08	2
June.	9½	5 20	1½	10½	5 07	½	9	5 15	2
July.	9½	5 15	1½	10½	5 07	1	8½	5 17	2½
Aug.	9½	5 15	1½	9½	5 10	2½	9½	5 15	2

SIGHT BILLS AND TIME CHECKS.

One of the mooted points of commercial law is, whether bank checks drawn payable at a future day, or commercial bills at sight, are entitled to grace. The decisions of the courts have been variant, and the practice of bankers is not uniform, though the denial of grace days is becoming more general. A recent case in Ohio, of *Martin vs. Bailey*, brought the following ruling on the subject from Judge Bartley, of the District Court :—

I. That a draft of money payable at a day subsequent to its date, although otherwise in the ordinary form of a check, is a bill of exchange, and subject to the usages and rules that govern bills of exchange, and, as such, is entitled to days of grace.

II. The distinction between a bill and a check does not depend upon whether drawn payable to order or bearer, or whether drawn upon a bank or a banker, or not; but it is founded in the difference in nature or character of these two classes of commercial paper.

III. A check and a bill of exchange, though in many respects similar, are to be distinguished in the following particulars, viz. :—

1st. A check is drawn upon an existing fund, and is an absolute transfer or appropriation to the holder of so much money, in the hands of the drawee, but very frequently drawn in anticipation of funds, upon a previously arranged credit.

2d. The drawer of a check is always the principal, whereas the drawer of a bill frequently stands in the position of a mere surety.

3d. Although demand of payment and notice of non-payment in due time may be essential to hold the endorser of a check, yet a failure in this respect does not discharge the drawer, unless an actual loss to him can be shown to have arisen from such delinquency on the part of the holder.

4th. A check requires no acceptance, and when presented, is presented for payment.

5th. It is not protestible, or, in other words, protest is not requisite to hold the maker or an endorser.

6th. From these distinguishing characteristics, arising out of the nature of these two classes of instruments, it follows, that a check is payable on presentation and demand, and cannot be made payable on a specified day in future, and consequently not entitled to days of grace.

7th. Any supposed usage of banks in any particular place to regard drafts upon them payable at a certain day, as checks, and not entitled to days of grace, is inadmissible as evidence to control the rules of law in relation to such paper.

COINAGE OF GREAT BRITAIN FROM 1846 TO 1856.

An account has been published of the coinage of gold, silver and copper at the Royal Mint of Great Britain, from 1846 to 1856, from which the following totals have been gathered :—

Years.	Gold.	Silver.	Copper.
1846 to 1852.....	£28,757,825	£1,246,873	£27,765
1853.....	11,952,391	701,544	9,072
1854.....	4,152,183	140,481	60,866
1855.....	9,008,664	195,511	41,092
Total.....	£53,871,563	£2,284,409	£138,996

Thus, while the average of gold coined in the seven years, 1846 to 1852, was £4,108,300, it has subsequently been £8,371,000, or more than double. Meanwhile, the increase in France and the United States has been on a scale of equal magnitude. With regard to silver and copper, the present statement shows that the cost of the silver for the coinage of the above sum of £2,284,400, was £2,214,151, leaving a surplus of £70,258 ; the copper for the coinage of £138,795 cost £69,303.

DIVIDENDS OF LONDON BANKS.

The dividends declared lately, for 1856, by the principal joint stock banks, are as follows :—

	Capital.	Deposits.	Div.
London and Westminster.....	£1,000,000	£11,170,000	16
London Joint Stock	600,000	7,873,000	22½
Union Bank.....	600,000	9,045,000	17½
London and County	494,275	4,213,000	10
Commercial	300,000	1,536,000	11
Royal British.....	150,000	352,000	4
City Bank	217,895	736,000	5
Bank of London	300,000	1,363,000	5

EXPORT OF SILVER FROM GREAT BRITAIN TO INDIA.

The export of silver to India from England has been £4,808,908, and of gold, £201,725, during the first six months of the year, against £3,514,800 for the same period of 1855, an increase of nearly 100 per cent. The *London Daily News* says :—

“The increased velocity with which the current of the precious metals has lately set towards India, will be best shown by a recapitulation of the total exports from England by the Eastern steamers during the last five years. These remittances amounted in 1851 to £1,818,380, in 1852 to £3,551,977, in 1853 to £4,590,867, in 1854 to £4,300,302, and in 1855 to £7,358,161. In the present year they are proceeding at the unprecedented rate of nearly ten millions and a quarter sterling per annum. * * * * *

“The influence exercised upon the European money markets by the flow of silver to the East being thus powerful, it would be particularly interesting if any reliable estimate could be formed as to the extent of the capacity of India to absorb silver. He must be a bold man, however, who will venture upon positive assertions on this point. From time immemorial India has been notoriously a complete sink of the precious metals.”

CONDITION OF THE BANKS OF SOUTH CAROLINA.

The following table, compiled from the returns made to the Controller General of the State, shows the discounts, deposits, specie, and circulation of the several banks of South Carolina on the 31st of July, 1856 :—

Banks.	Discounts.	Deposits.	Specie.	Circulation.
Bank of State.....	\$1,240,955	\$600,468	\$157,353	\$1,227,221
Branch Columbia....	1,014,117	213,160	4,210
Branch Camden.....	287,093	19,328	3,792
South-western R. R.....	494,055	478,156	55,406	258,550
Planters' and Mechanics'....	722,718	242,019	91,854	201,319
Union.....	724,426	191,825	67,380	239,480
State S. Carolina....	454,905	278,183	123,693	285,245
South Carolina.....	938,653	170,304	55,225	134,283
Charleston.....	2,027,105	584,139	319,282	821,448
Farmers' and Exchange.....	761,893	165,427	81,034	857,870
Hamburg.....	127,708	94,674	97,528	522,101
Commercial.....	665,127	259,555	85,786	441,055
Newbury.....	67,794	28,481	37,515	509,409
Planters.....	98,243	32,859	20,856	408,425
Exchange.....	382,420	181,431	39,185	561,264
Merchants'.....	123,669	13,557	19,431	252,961
Chester.....	143,951	70,049	37,098	293,628
Camden.....	146,478	28,673	18,229	127,081
Peoples'.....	402,686	84,758	81,995	438,580
Georgetown.....	168,218	70,432	23,213	242,300
Total.....	\$11,521,344	\$3,919,419	\$1,419,443	\$7,993,228

We also append a summary statement of the debts due, and the resources of the several banks at that time.

DEBTS DUE BY THE SEVERAL BANKS.

Capital stock.....	\$14,847,064 38
Bills in circulation.....	7,903,228 32
Net profits on hand.....	1,498,760 51
Balance due to banks in this State.....	1,767,452 47
Balance due to banks in other States.....	665,522 02
Other moneys due which bear interest.....	18,340 46
State Treasury for balance of current fund.....	158,105 30
State Treasury for balance of sinking fund.....	1,306,867 37
State Treasury for loan for rebuilding city.....	1,667,617 73
Cash deposited, and all other moneys due, exclusive of bills in circulation, profits on hand, balances due to other banks, and money bearing interest.....	3,919,653 42
Total liabilities.....	\$33,752,111 98

RESOURCES OF THE SEVERAL BANKS.

Specie on hand.....	\$1,419,413 08
Real estate.....	608,041 17
Bills of other banks in this State.....	519,160 09
Bills of banks in other States.....	62,935 47
Balance due from banks in this State.....	298,520 99
Balance due from banks in other States.....	1,078,152 64
Notes discounted on personal security.....	11,521,244 44
Loans secured by pledge of own stock.....	338,964 14
Loans secured by pledge of other stock.....	1,241,414 39
Domestic exchange.....	8,639,077 64
Foreign exchange.....	765,297 01

Bonds	1,219,543 52
Money invested in stock	1,862,910 05
Suspended debt and debt in suit	1,553,402 03
Branches and agencies	1,782,761 65
Bonds under law rebuilding Charleston	201,917 18
Interest and expenses of State loan	95,066 33
Money invested in every other way than is specified in the foregoing particulars	446,290 30
Total resources of the banks	\$33,752,111 98

TERMS ON WHICH CORPORATIONS IN VIRGINIA MAY BORROW MONEY.

The following "Bill for the relief of railroad and other companies, and to regulate the terms on which they may borrow money," passed the Legislature of Virginia, March 15th, 1856, is now in force in that State:—

1. Be it enacted by the General Assembly, that no incorporated company shall hereafter interpose the defense of usury in any action; nor shall any bond, note, debt, or contract of such company be set aside, impaired, or adjudged invalid by reason of anything contained in the laws prohibiting usury.
2. No company in which the State is a stockholder, shall issue bonds or certificates of debt to others than the State to an amount greater than its capital, nor bearing a rate of interest exceeding 8 per cent; nor shall it sell any such bonds at a discount exceeding ten per cent. But no such bonds or certificates of debt shall be issued after the completion of the main line of such roads; nor shall any bonds or certificates of debt be issued for any purposes other than the construction and equipment of the main line.
3. No issue of bonds shall be made under this act, unless the Board of Public Works shall have first certified that it is made in accordance with the provisions thereof.
4. Railroad companies in process of construction, one-half of whose original capital stock has been actually paid in, may borrow money according to the provisions of this act. And no companies, one-half at least of whose original capital stock has not been paid in, shall borrow money by a sale of its bonds or certificates of debt.
5. This act shall be in force from its passage.

THE CURRENCY QUESTION IN CHINA.

We have referred to this subject in a former number of the *Merchants' Magazine*. The question, according to a correspondent of the *Evening Post*, continues to engross considerable attention at Shanghai, and what seems surprising to the writer in the *Post* is, that there are two opinions on the subject, each sustained with acrimony through the local press. We quote from the correspondent of the *Post*, as follows:—

Having lived there, and also been lately at New York, nothing is clearer to my mind than that the Carolus dollar currency there ought to be superseded by Mexican dollars, or some other currency easier of attainment than the Carolus, and at the same time more on a par with the native syce silver. It is clear that the Carolus dollars cannot be obtained, by fair means, in sufficient quantities to meet the enlarging necessities of commerce in Shanghai. My agent in New York was trying more than six months to buy a thousand Carolus dollars for me, and ultimately reported that he could not get them! And if a thousand cannot be obtained, is it not a clear case that it would be infinitely more difficult to obtain a million? Nor are they a fair representation of the currency, were they obtainable. They have a nominal value of twenty to twenty-five per cent above what

they are really worth by weight, and therefore they ought not to be the representatives of the currency. Let the Mexicans be the standard of currency at par with syce, according to weight, and the difference a premium on the Carolus—then, if any persons are foolish enough to buy at 20 or 50 per cent either, and can find any to purchase, let them do so. I doubt not but they can be accommodated, at a good round premium. The Chinese are very accommodating, (or some of their customers,) will make milk, wine, or Carolus dollars either, brand new, dated fifty years back, when such are in demand. "We speak that we do know." And while the currency question is under consideration, and the change gradually progressing, I think the Americans especially should exert their best influence to introduce gold and the United States half-dollar silver coinage at a just and equitable rate of exchange. At present five-dollar gold pieces are only worth four dollars and a fraction, and not easily disposed of even at that. As California, our gold country, is likely to have a most extensive trade with China, (unless they so disgust the Chinese by abuse as to cut off intercourse,) there is the more necessity for gold being legalized in China, and made a lawful currency at a just valuation. And if our mints would make our silver money a little heavier, so as to be equal in weight with the Mexican, I know of no good reason why it should not be equal in value. It is now five or six per cent under weight, and as the Chinese receive all their money by weight, of course the Americans have to lose that, otherwise it is now at par in Canton, and soon, I trust, will be at Shanghai, and the other open ports of trade. I beg that the conductors of our mints will a little enlarge the weight of our silver coin to meet the Chinese market.

LOANS MADE TO BROKERS BY NEW YORK BANKS.

The official returns of the banks of the State of New York, show the following amounts loaned by the city banks to brokers :—

Union.....	\$539,750	National.....	\$92,000
Metropolitan.....	450,979	Seventh Ward.....	85,000
Merchants'.....	301,495	Commonwealth.....	84,664
America.....	262,094	Citizens'.....	60,000
Leather.....	245,300	Merchants' Exchange.....	50,000
Republic.....	231,221	Bowery.....	44,475
Manhattan.....	212,200	Importers.....	36,166
American Exchange.....	200,030	Mechanics' and Traders'.....	35,000
Fulton.....	198,464	East River.....	53,000
Pacific.....	165,000	Phenix.....	26,800
Mechanics'.....	157,000	County.....	20,000
Shoe and Leather.....	147,000	Tradesmen's.....	20,000
Corn Exchange.....	134,000	Market.....	20,000
Commerce.....	114,000	Marine.....	10,000
Mercantile.....	105,000	North River.....	8,000
Oriental.....	93,500	N. Y. Exchange.....	6,197
North America.....	2,000	Atlantic.....	5,190
Total in city banks.....		\$4,193,391	
In country banks.....		230,781	
Total in all banks of the State of New York.....		\$4,474,172	

EXPORT OF AUSTRALIAN GOLD.

Some interesting facts in relation to the gold of Australia have just been published. It is stated that the produce of the diggings first became available in May, 1851; and between the 29th of May and the 31st of December, in that year, the quantity exported from New South Wales was £468,336, and from Victoria £438,000. In 1852 the exports from New South Wales had increased to

£3,600,175, and from Victoria £6,135,000. In 1853 there was a decline in the shipment of gold from New South Wales, which in that year amounted only to £1,731,171, and in 1854 a further falling of to £773,209. Last year the export was £209,250. The shipments of the precious metal from Victoria during the last three years have increased in a ratio far greater than this decline. In 1853 they amounted to £8,614; in 1854 to £8,255, and during the year ending in December last the gross amount of £11,303 was exported from the colony of Victoria. Great Britain and her dependencies have absorbed by far the larger portion of this golden produce—only some £20,000 having been exported to the United States during the five years, while £213,000 have been transmitted to various other countries. It is estimated that from America and Australia during the last ten years not less than £150,000,000 of value of gold have been imported by Great Britain.

WHERE THE SILVER GOES.

The following paper was read lately before the British Association for the Advancement of Science, by R. H. Walsh, LL. D., late Whately Professor of Political Economy in the University of Dublin:—

Mr. Walsh commenced by stating that so far back as the time when Pliny termed it the sink of the precious metals, silver was a favorite article of export to the East. It has continued so since, but the trade of late has assumed an extraordinary magnitude. In the five years prior to the present, over £22,000,000 worth of silver have been exported to the East through England alone, and from other countries a similar movement has been in operation. The export in 1855 was £6,400,000, and this year it is proceeding at a rate of over £9,000,000 per annum, judging from the returns that have been published for the first four months. Unlike the old movement, the present cannot be permanent. The former was seldom more than might be accounted for as the distribution of silver to some of its chief consumers—the nations of the East—according as new supplies were raised elsewhere. It was, in fact, the ordinary movement from the producer to the consumer.

But now silver goes faster to the East than it is produced throughout the world. Hence the process cannot be permanent, but must come to an end as soon as the redistribution of the old stock has been effected; for the annual production of silver is only about £8,000,000, and since the export to the East through England alone is at the rate of over £9,000,000, it follows that it cannot be the new supplies of silver which meet that demand, and all others for the same metal, but that there must be some auxiliary fund to be drawn upon. Such a fund is furnished by a cessation in the demand for silver in several countries which before employed it most largely, but now use gold instead. In a paper brought before this Association at Glasgow, in September last, I had occasion to notice that silver, which used to be coined in France and the United States at an average rate of £4,000,000 per annum, is now little employed, while much of the old coin of that metal is melted down and exported. In France, it is said, that in one year, 1853, so much as £12,000,000 were disposed of in this manner, and that the operation has been since proceeding at a still greater rate.

All this acts in the same way as if a silver California had been discovered. No one thinks it extraordinary that gold is exported on a large scale from the auriferous regions to the various nations which use that metal; but it is quite as natural to suppose that when large supplies of silver are thrown upon the market, (it matters not whether newly extracted from the earth, or just taken from the melting pot,) they would find their way to those places where silver is generally employed. But India, China, and other Eastern nations, come under this description, and hence the late extraordinary exportation. As this cause is a novel one, there is an inclination on the part of some who call themselves practical men to

adopt any other rather than it. Experience gives no instance of any such, and hence those who look to their personal experience alone are completely at fault when discussing this question. Some talk of the balance of trade; others of an increased importation of tea and silk from China, and a third set of investigators enunciate details of the machinery of the foreign exchanges by which the transmission is effected.

But such persons forget that the export of silver is just as likely in the abstract to be the cause as the effect of the "balance," or "increased importation," in which they dogmatically assume it originated; and that, as for the details of the foreign exchanges, they merely tell us how and not why the export takes place. Yet all this while the question presents no difficulty whatsoever, when two facts are noticed in juxtaposition—one, the great cessation in the demand for silver in countries which employed a double standard; the other, the circumstance that the Eastern nations habitually use silver on a large scale, especially in their currency. After that there is nothing to be said to complete the explanation, except to call to mind that when the supply of any article is unusually great, compared with the number of consumers, it must find its way to those latter in quantities proportionally augmented; and that such is the case at present with the article of silver, the principal consumers of which are the nations of the East.

FINANCES OF THE UNITED STATES GOVERNMENT FOR 1856-1857.

The following is a corrected statement of the appropriations made at the last session of Congress, amounting in the aggregate to seventy-five and a half millions; besides which the Miscellaneous Civil Appropriation Bill contains a clause authorizing the appointment of Commissioners to ascertain the amount of indebtedness incurred by the Territorial Governments of Oregon and Washington in the suppression of Indian hostilities during the last two years. We know, from official documents, that at least four millions of scrip have been issued for the purpose specified, which at last accounts was selling for 25 cents on the dollar. This sum will no doubt be paid in full, and probably 25 per cent may be added to it to meet the cost of operations since the date of the report conveying this information. The General Appropriation, or Civil Diplomatic Bill of former years, is now subdivided into three bills, which stand first in the subjoined list:—

Diplomatic and consular expenditures	\$986,000
Legislative, judicial and executive expenditures	6,487,000
Miscellaneous and civil expenditures	8,581,000
Post-office expenditures	12,600,000
For supplying deficiencies	4,200,000
For running the boundary line between U. States and Great Britain, west of the Lake of the Woods	81,000
Several river and harbor improvement bills	830,000
Naval expenditures	13,523,000
For restoring and maintaining peace with the Indians of Washington and Oregon Territories	300,000
Invalid and other pensions	1,458,000
Military Academy	174,000
Mail-steamer appropriations	2,100,000
Fortifications	1,745,000
Indian appropriations	2,340,000
For the collection of the revenue	2,259,000
For the interest on the public debt	2,800,000
Permanent and indefinite appropriations	1,500,000
Army appropriation defined	14,000,000

Total appropriations of late session, including deferred Army Bill.. \$75,475,000

STATISTICS OF TRADE AND COMMERCE.

PRODUCE RECEIVED AT NEW ORLEANS IN 1855-56.

The New Orleans *Price Current* furnishes, in connection with its usual annual statement of the trade and commerce of that city, the subjoined table, showing the receipts of the principal articles from the interior during the year ending August 31, 1856, and their estimated average and total value. We have published these tables in the *Merchants' Magazine* from year to year, since its commencement, in July, 1839:—

A TABLE, SHOWING THE RECEIPTS OF THE PRINCIPAL ARTICLES FROM THE INTERIOR DURING THE YEAR ENDING THE 31ST OF AUGUST, 1856, WITH THEIR ESTIMATED AVERAGE AND TOTAL VALUE.

Articles.	Amount.	Average price.	Value.
Apples bbls.	62,449	\$3 00	\$187,347
Bacon, assorted hhds. & casks	36,454	75 00	2,734,050
Bacon, assorted boxes	2,732	35 00	95,620
Bacon, hams hhds. & tcs.	28,751	60 00	1,725,060
Bacon, in bulk lbs.	173,760	09	15,633
Bagging pieces	33,905	18 00	610,290
Bale rope coils	101,331	10 00	1,013,310
Beans bbls.	6,758	6 00	40,548
Butter kegs & firkins	33,119	10 00	331,190
Butter bbls.	1,825	35 00	63,875
Beeswax	130	50 00	6,600
Beef tierces	49,849	12 00	598,188
Beef tierces	11,210	20 00	224,200
Beef, dried lbs.	19,010	10	1,901
Cotton bales	1,759,293	40 00	70,371,720
Corn-meal bbls.	240	4 00	960
Corn, in ear bushels	41,924	80	33,539
Corn, shelled sacks	1,990,995	1 50	2,986,492
Cheese boxes	42,652	4 50	191,934
Candles boxes	82,893	8 00	763,144
Cider bbls.	59	3 00	177
Coal, Western	987,000	45	444,150
Dried apples and peaches	3,046	6 00	18,276
Feathers bags	778	42 00	32,676
Flaxseed tierces	230	12 00	2,760
Flour bbls.	1,120,974	7 50	8,407,305
Furs hhds, bndls, & bxs.	1,030	400,000
Glasware pkgs.	30,326	5 00	151,630
Hemp bales	16,818	30 00	504,540
Hides skins	151,431	3 00	454,293
Hay tons	122,470	5 00	612,350
Iron, pig tons	332	35 00	11,620
Lard bbls. & tcs.	110,713	26 00	2,878,538
Lard kegs	83,790	6 00	502,740
Leather bundles	4,758	35 00	166,530
Lime, Western bbls.	16,551	1 75	28,964
Lead pigs	80,624	5 00	403,120
Lead, bar kegs & bxs.	341	20 00	6,820
Lead, white kegs	65	4 00	260
Molasses (estimated crop) galls.	15,274,140	30	4,582,242
Oats bbls. & sacks	587,180	1 00	587,180
Onions bbls.	14,477	3 00	43,431
Oil, linseed	163	42 00	6,846

Articles.	Amount.	Average price.	Value.
Oil, castor	bbls. 1,520	\$50 00	\$76,000
Oil, lard	10,881	35 00	880,835
Potatoes	182,556	2 50	456,390
Pork	tres. & bbls. 277,841	17 00	4,723,297
Pork	boxes 6,823	35 00	238,805
Pork	hhds. 2,893	60 00	173,580
Pork in bulk	lbs. 7,480,384	06	448,823
Porter and ale	bbls. 1,687	10 00	16,870
Packing yarn	reels 3,314	7 00	23,198
Rum	bbls. 669	20 00	13,380
Skins, deer	packs 406	30 00	12,180
Shingles	M. 5,000	3 00	15,000
Shot	kegs 3,398	25 00	84,950
Soap	boxes 10,287	3 50	36,004
Staves	M. 4,647	50 00	232,350
Sugar (estimated crop)	hhds. 231,427	70 00	16,199,890
Spanish moss	bales 5,317	30 00	159,510
Tallow	bbls. 1,195	27 00	32,265
Tobacco, leaf	hhds. 49,696	140 00	6,957,440
Tobacco, strips	4,810	200 00	962,000
Tobacco, stems	1,584	40 00	63,360
Tobacco, chewing	kegs & bxs. 3,599	25 00	89,975
Twine	bndls. & bxs. 3,658	12 00	43,896
Vinegar	bbls. 1,087	6 00	6,522
Whisky	148,753	12 00	1,785,036
Wheat	bbls. & sacks 869,524	3 20	2,782,476
Other various articles, estimated at	6,000,000
Total value	\$144,256,081
Total in 1854-55	\$117,106,823	Total in 1852-53	\$134,233,735
Total in 1853-54	115,336,798	Total in 1851-52	108,051,708

TONNAGE OF THE UNITED STATES IN 1851, 1854 AND 1855.

The statistics of the navigation of the United States for 1855 show an aggregate tonnage of 5,180,983 tons. Of this amount 4,321,951 is owned in the Free States, and 859,032 in the Slave States. Of the entire amount of tonnage of the country, New York, Massachusetts and Maine own 3,250,036 tons, or nearly two-thirds of the whole. Of the tonnage owned in the slaveholding States, Louisiana and Maryland own 439,000 tons, or more than one-half. The following table shows the tonnage of the principal maritime States in 1851, 1854 and 1855:—

	1851.	1854.	1855.
New York	1,041,014	1,415,031	1,464,221
Massachusetts	694,402	916,074	979,210
Maine	536,315	686,100	806,605
Pennsylvania	264,373	361,827	397,767
Connecticut	116,179	129,308	137,180
New Jersey	88,895	105,947	121,019
California	59,425	102,257	92,262
Rhode Island	38,050	45,911	51,030
Maryland	204,544	220,203	234,805
Louisiana	252,284	187,073	204,143
Virginia	68,799	84,840	91,788
South Carolina	35,187	42,115	60,985
North Carolina	43,732	57,800	60,077
District of Columbia	22,904	37,982	34,530
Georgia	24,185	27,521	29,500

PRICES OF PRODUCE AT NEW ORLEANS IN 1855 AND 1856.

[COMPILED FROM THE ANNUAL STATEMENT OF THE NEW ORLEANS PRICE CURRENT.]

The following tables show the highest and lowest prices of flour, wheat, and corn in sacks, in each month of the year ending August 31, 1856 :—

1855-56.	FLOUR.		WHEAT.	
	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.
September....per bbl.	\$7 12 a 7 37	\$6 62 a 6 75	\$1 40 a 1 55	\$0 00 a 1 30
October.....	8 40 a 8 50	7 25 a 7 50	1 85 a 1 87	1 50 a 1 60
November.....	8 90 a 9 00	8 50 a 8 75	1 93 a 2 00	1 75 a 1 81
December.....	9 20 a 9 50	8 00 a 8 10	1 95 a 2 05	1 68 a 1 75
January.....	8 75 a 9 00	7 75 a 8 12	1 70 a 1 73	1 75 a 1 95
February.....	8 00 a 8 50	6 75 a 7 25	1 78 a 1 95	1 50 a 1 55
March.....	6 87 a 7 12	6 50 a 6 75	1 50 a 1 55	1 15 a 1 40
April.....	7 10 a 7 25	6 00 a 6 50	1 40 a 1 50	1 25 a 1 40
May.....	6 25 a 6 55	5 87 a 6 00	1 35 a 1 40	1 12 a 1 25
June.....	6 50 a 6 75	6 00 a 6 25	1 35 a 1 40	1 15 a 1 30
July.....	6 60 a 6 75	5 87 a 6 12	1 25 a 1 55	1 10 a 1 35
August.....	6 62 a 6 80	6 12 a 6 37	1 25 a 1 55	1 25 a 1 40

CORN IN SACKS.

	Highest.	Lowest.		Highest.	Lowest.
September.....	70 a 80	60 a 68	March.....	48 a 55	45 a 48
October.....	65 a 80	55 a 72	April.....	48 a 53	43 a 48
November.....	85 a 90	65 a 80	May.....	54 a 57	40 a 46
December.....	88 a 90	65 a 68	June.....	49 a 52	46 a 50
January.....	69 a 75	60 a 65	July.....	55 a 61	48 a 52
February.....	67 a 75	45 a 53	August.....	70 a 90	68 a 72

PRICES OF PORK AT NEW ORLEANS IN 1855-56.

	MESS.		PRIME.	
	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.
September....per bbl.	\$20 00 a 21 00	\$20 00 a . . .	\$17 50 a . . .	\$17 50 a . . .
October.....	21 00 a 22 00	20 00 a 21 00	17 50 a . . .	17 50 a . . .
November.....	21 00 a 21 50	19 00 a 20 00	18 50 a . . .	17 50 a . . .
December.....	19 00 a 20 00	15 50 a 16 00	18 50 a . . .	15 00 a . . .
January.....	16 50 a 17 00	14 75 a 15 00	15 00 a . . .	14 00 a . . .
February.....	16 50 a 17 00	15 50 a 16 00	14 25 a . . .	14 25 a . . .
March.....	16 50 a 17 00	15 00 a . . .	14 25 a . . .	12 50 a 13 00
April.....	16 00 a 16 50	15 25 a 15 75	13 00 a 13 50	12 50 a 13 00
May.....	16 75 a 17 00	16 00 a . . .	14 75 a 15 50	13 00 a 13 50
June.....	19 00 a 19 50	17 50 a 17 75	16 00 a . . .	14 75 a 15 50
July.....	20 50 a 21 00	20 00 a 21 00	16 00 a . . .	16 00 a . . .
August.....	20 00 a 20 75	19 50 a 20 00	16 00 a . . .	16 00 a . . .

PRICES OF BEEF AT NEW ORLEANS IN 1855-56.

	MESS.		PRIME.	
	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.
September...per bbl.	\$17 00 a 18 00	\$16 50 a 17 00	\$15 00 a 16 00	\$14 50 a 14 75
October.....	17 50 a 18 00	16 50 a 17 50	15 00 a 16 00	14 00 a 14 50
November.....	17 50 a 18 50	16 00 a 17 50	14 25 a 14 75	14 00 a 14 50
December.....	14 00 a 15 00	12 50 a 14 00	12 00 a 14 00	10 00 a 12 00
January.....	12 50 a 14 00	12 50 a 13 50	10 00 a 12 00	10 00 a 10 50
February.....	12 00 a 14 00	12 00 a 13 50	10 00 a 10 50	10 00 a 10 50
March.....	12 00 a 14 00	12 00 a 14 00	10 00 a 10 50	10 00 a 10 50
April.....	12 00 a 15 00	12 00 a 14 00	10 00 a 11 00	10 00 a 10 50
May.....	12 00 a 15 00	12 00 a 15 00	10 00 a 11 00	10 00 a 10 75
June.....	12 00 a 15 00	12 00 a 15 00	10 00 a 10 75	10 00 a 10 75
July.....	12 00 a 15 00	12 00 a 15 00	10 00 a 10 75	10 00 a 10 75
August.....	13 00 a 16 00	13 00 a 14 50	10 00 a 10 75	10 00 a 10 75

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS AT CINCINNATI.

The Cincinnati *Price Current*, of September 10th, 1856, furnishes its usual annual statement and statistics of trade and commerce, from which we derive the following figures. The statements of the *Price Current* possess a yearly increasing interest, and are evidently prepared with much care and labor.

VALUE OF PRINCIPAL IMPORTS INTO THE PORT OF CINCINNATI FOR THE YEARS ENDING AUGUST 31st, 1855 AND 1856.

Articles.	Total quantity.	Average price.	Total value.	Total 1855.
Apples, green.....bbls	31,594	\$1 10	\$34,753	\$33,589
Beef.....	1,534	12 00	18,408	20,309
Do.....tcs.	599	18 00	10,782	74,336
Bagging.....pcs.	23	2 90	67	238
Barley.....bush.	244,792	1 40	342,708	565,491
Beans.....	15,493	2 25	34,859	42,932
Butter.....bbls.	11,361	32 00	363,552	331,931
Do.....firkins and kegs	12,422	15 50	192,541	114,112
Blooms.....tons	3,939	70 00	275,730	299,435
Bran, &c.....sks.	180,018	85	153,015	64,274
Candles.....bxs.	1,610	8 10	13,041	8,502
Corn.....bush.	978,511	43	420,759	549,626
Corn Meal.....	10,263	70	7,184	29,533
Cider.....bbls.	1,352	5 00	67 60	3,730
Cheese.....cks.	77	24 00	1,848	1,638
Do.....bxs.	190,983	3 40	649,342	605,050
Cotton.....bbls.	29,119	45 00	1,310,355	664,708
Coffee.....sks.	92,086	18 00	1,657,548	2,064,034
Codfish.....drums	1,492	35 00	52,220	32,494
Cooperage.....pcs.	162,549	75	121,911	94,904
Eggs.....bxs. and bbls.	14,997	8 00	119,976	96,832
Flour.....bbls.	546,727	6 40	3,499,052	2,793,510
Feathers.....sks.	5,551	27 25	40,245	287,052
Fish, sund.....bbls.	14,404	11 80	169,967	136,720
Do.....kegs and kits	5,296	3 43	11,271	18,431
Fruits, dried.....bush.	137,662	1 60	220,259	116,094
Grease.....bbls.	7,059	17 00	120,003	85,095
Glass.....bxs.	39,769	2 50	99,422	104,087
Do ware.....pkgs.	31,480	4 60	144,808	130,014
Hemp.....bdls bls	10,079	24 00	241,896	199,433
Hides, loose.....	52,348	3 25	170,131	86,638
Hides, green.....lbs.	64,219	7	4,495	5,076
Hay.....bales	41,696	2 75	114,664	100,472
Herrings.....bxs.	12,853	60	7,711	6,374
Hogs.....head	509,426	12 28	6,255,751	4,591,330
Hops.....bales	4,379	35 00	153,265	180,630
Iron and steel.....pcs.	741,037	1 60	1,185,659	809,427
Do.....bdls.	113,546	4 00	4,541,184	250,900
Do.....tons	3,757	80 00	300,560	295,200
Lead.....pigs	44,639	5 50	245,514	294,625
Lard.....bbls.	79,505	25 00	1,987,625	1,073,080
Do.....kgs.	14,763	5 00	73,815	66,739
Leather.....bdls.	15,227	14 00	213,178	213,036
Lemons.....bxs.	9,026	4 75	42,873	35,347
Lime.....bbls.	53,545	1 00	53,515	62,913
Liquors.....hhds. and pps.	2,213	200 00	442,006	308,020
Mdz. and sundries.....pkgs.	786,040	37 50	29,476,500	30,020,940
Merchandise.....tons	2,429	634 00	1,539,986	1,440,260
Molasses.....bbls.	65,174	17 00	1,107,958	606,133
Malt.....bush.	68,839	1 75	120,467	62,297
Nails.....kgs.	104,067	4 75	494,317	435,568

Articles.	Total quantity.	Average price.	Total value.	Total 1855.
Oil	13,083	\$38 00	\$497,154	\$267,040
Orangesboxes and bbls.	7,972	5 00	39,860	66,195
Oakum.....bales	3,856	17 50	67,480	68,871
Oats	403,920	32	129,254	201,674
Oilcake.....lbs.	499,980	1½c.	6,249	1,344
Pork and Bacon.....hhds.	9,734	62 00	603,508	356,820
Do	7,513	2 00	165,286	135,400
Do	26,292	16 00	420,672	540,890
Do	16,482,452	7	1,153,770	1,113,092
Potatoes	33,508	1 75	58 639	89,946
Pig Iron.....tons	41,016	35 00	1,435,560	931,455
Pimento and Pepper....bgs.	3,748	15 00	56,220	33,525
Rye.....bush.	158,220	75	116,665	57,417
Resin, Tar, &c	12,180	3 25	39,585	47,289
Raisins	14,851	4 00	59,404	87,915
Rope, Twine, &c	5,643	7 50	67,322	18,825
Rice.....tcs.	4,442	35 00	155,470	155,960
Sugar.....hhds.	32,354	80 00	2,588,320	2,817,180
Do	16,846	20 00	336,920	311,440
Do	2,009	45 00	90,405	87,652
Seed, flax.....bbls.	25,849	5 25	135,707	120,945
Do grass	8,682	20 00	173,640	232,080
Do hemp.....	1,784	3 25	5,798	32,345
Salt	80,719	1 50	121,078	108,157
Do	54,521	2 75	149,932	204,495
Shot	1,648	24 00	39,552	60,700
Tea.....pkgs.	15,031	32 00	480,992	602,220
Tobacco	5,702	94 00	535,988	468,270
Do	2,129	8 70	18,522	19,652
Do.....boxes and kegs	33,924	24 50	915,948	558,045
Tallow.....bbls.	2,302	26 00	59,852	95,352
Wines.....bbls and ½ cks.	3,272	59 00	193,048	179,352
Do.....bkts. and boxes	6,924	12 00	83,088	57,780
Wheat	1,069,468	1 40	1,497,255	699,859
Wool.....bales	6,489	31 00	201,159	179,970
Whiskey.....bbls.	428,001	13 00	5,564,013	3,671,580
Yarns, cotton.....pkgs.	9,102	60	14,563	11,283
Yarns.....lbs.	28,464	20	5,692	13,148
Lumber.....feet	75,000,000	1½c.	1,031,250	990,000
Coal.....bush.	7,500,000	9	675,000	1,086,900
Shingles.....No	32,000,000	3 75	120,000	108,000
Stave wood and stone (estimated).....			410,000	360,000
Total.....			\$75,295,901	\$67,501,341

VALUE OF PRINCIPAL EXPORTS FROM THE PORT OF CINCINNATI, FOR THE YEARS ENDING
AUGUST 31st, 1855 AND 1856.

Articles.	Total quantity.	Average price.	Total value.	Total 1855.
Apples, gr.....bbls.	10,047	\$1 75	\$17,582	\$8,567
Alcohol.....	31,679	26 40	836,325	528,838
Beef.....	19,516	12 00	234,192	202,216
Do	4,844	18 00	87,192	237,609
Beans	1,891	5 00	9,455	9,079
Brooms.....doz.	28,099	2 00	56,198	41,119
Butter.....bbls.	2,391	32 00	76,512	42,880
Do.....firkins and kegs	28,128	11 00	309,408	266,156
Bran, &c	19,142	85	16,270	9,164
Bagging	5,378	2 90	15,596	6,958
Corn.....sks.	75,260	1 07	77,528	90,081

Articles.	Total quantity.	Average price.	Total value.	Total 1855.
Corn Meal.....bbls.	1,187	\$2 25	\$2,671	\$8,038
Cheese.....cks.	8	24 00	192	80
Do.....bxs.	114,607	3 50	401,125	337,761
Candles.....	191,728	8 10	1,552,997	1,057,851
Cattle.....head	21,338	70 00	1,493,680	719,950
Cotton.....bales	21,625	45 00	973,125	440,924
Coffee.....cks.	37,903	18 00	682,254	782,235
Cooperage.....pcs.	114,737	1 10	126,211	129,726
Eggs.....brls.	8,603	10 00	86,030	40,112
Flour.....	509,031	6 40	3,257,798	1,624,099
Feathers.....cks.	5,097	27 75	141,441	190,294
Fruit, dried.....bush.	49,671	1 60	79,473	26,068
Grease.....bbls.	7,675	17 00	130,475	160,021
Grass seed.....	4,478	20 00	89,560	117,280
Horses.....head	1,923	140 00	269,220	252,650
Hay.....bales	1,008	2 75	3,528	15,406
Hemp.....bales	2,862	24 00	68,688	102,130
Hides.....lbs.	7,315	11	804	5,284
Hides.....No	36,123	3 25	117,400	85,494
Iron.....pieces	855,718	1 50	1,283,577	907,291
Do.....bdls.	92,039	3 75	345,146	238,935
Do.....tons	11,881	80 00	950,480	898,350
Lard.....bbls.	31,838	25 00	795,950	875,980
Do.....kegs	50,388	5 00	251,940	282,627
Lard Oil.....bbls.	56,712	33 00	1,871,496	1,307,850
Linseed Oil.....	3,639	36 00	131,004	127,798
Molasses.....bbls.	37,324	18 00	671,832	541,800
Oil Cake.....tons	1,021	28 00	28,588	19,450
Oats.....sacks	5,521	80	4,416	52,852
Potatoes, &c.....bbls.	26,305	2 00	52,610	33,797
Pork and Bacon.....hhds.	34,005	62 00	2,108,310	2,548,140
Do.....tierces	41,819	22 00	920,018	810,300
Do.....bbls.	110,869	16 00	1,773,904	1,511,987
Do.....boxes	25,603	32 00	819,296	472,851
Do in bulk.....lbs.	1,115,220	7	78,065	52,383
Rope, twine, &c.....pkgs.	5,144	7 00	36,008	27,363
Soap.....boxes	42,182	4 00	168,728	113,015
Sheep.....head	3,613	2 00	7,326	3,630
Sugar.....hhds.	21,336	85 00	1,813,560	2,010,784
Salt.....bbls.	31,064	2 75	85,426	112,632
Do.....sacks	9,928	1 40	130,000	13,448
Seed, flax.....bbls.	1,418	5 25	7,444	5,044
Sundry, mdz.....pkgs.	1,132,694	7 00	7,928,858	4,869,750
Do mdz.....tons	9,459	634 00	5,997,006	5,079,600
Do liquors.....bbls.	26,246	45 00	1,185,570	1,157,130
Do manufactures.....pcs.	333,373	4 00	1,333,492	1,390,256
Do produce.....pkgs.	519,386	3 50	1,817,851	496,787
Starch.....boxes	37,991	4 00	151,964	88,272
Tallow.....bbls.	4,094	26 00	106,444	241,255
Tobacco.....kegs and boxes	27,745	24 50	679,752	599,771
Do.....hhds.	5,005	94 00	470,470	447,120
Do.....bales	3,075	8 70	26,752	28,109
Vinegar.....bbls.	12,208	4 00	48,832	21,607
Whisky.....	352,434	13 00	4,581,642	2,922,612
Wool.....bales	8,691	81 00	269,421	218,790
Wool.....lbs.	896	30	268	1,254
White Lead.....kegs	56,063	2 20	123,270	121,479
Castings.....pieces	54,928	5 00	274,640	401,215
Do.....tons	3,518	90 00	316,620	186,570
Total.....			\$50,744,786	\$38,777,394

PRICE OF CORN AT CHICAGO FOR THE LAST FOUR YEARS.

	1852.	1853.	1854.	1855.
January.....	27 a 32	39 a 42	44 a 45	50 a 51
February.....	32 a 34	40 a 44	48 a 50	50 a 51
March.....	33 a 34	37 a 41	43 a 44	53 a 54
April.....	33 a 34	40 a 45	44 a 45	66 a 68
May.....	35 a 36	44 a 50	44 a 46	73 a 75
June.....	34 a 35	46 a 50	49 a 50	69 a 70
July.....	37 a 38	57 a 64	53 a 54	68 a 73
August.....	46 a 47	57 a 60	58 a 60	68 a 69
September.....	50 a 52	57 a 60	55 a 56	64 a 66
October.....	49 a 52	54 a 55	50 a 51	65 a 68
November.....	52 a 54	48 a 50	47 a 48	64 a 70
December.....	53 a 56	47 a 48	45 a 46	58 a 65

The corn crop of Illinois for 1855 is estimated at 150,000,000 bushels. The amount received at Chicago in 1852 was 2,993,791 bushels. In 1855 it was 8,389,036 bushels.

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN MERCHANDISE AND SPECIE AT NEW ORLEANS.

We give below a statement of the imports of merchandise, bullion, and specie at the port of New Orleans, for each month of the fiscal year ending on the 30th of June, 1856, and a comparative statement for the years from 1853 to 1856, both inclusive :—

	Dutiable.	Free.	Specie & bullion.
July, 1855.....	\$440,039	\$123,604	\$15,415
August.....	180,485	162,280	53,684
September.....	425,781	215,309	64,136
October.....	731,434	563,608	68,297
November.....	868,645	676,185	269,023
December.....	913,418	514,303	223,931
January, 1856.....	1,000,180	479,600	144,200
February.....	978,272	834,521	54,476
March.....	1,013,176	505,696	252,916
April.....	1,100,363	337,356	393,375
May.....	885,286	61,620	117,726
June.....	453,504	1,943,514	117,969
	\$8,990,583	\$6,417,596	\$1,775,148

Showing a total of all imports for the year of \$17,183,327.

Subjoined, we have a comparative statement of imports, through the custom-house, New Orleans, for the fiscal years ending on the 30th of June, 1853, to 1856, inclusive :—

	1853.	1854.	1855.	1856.
Dutiable.....	\$8,019,029	\$8,272,449	\$6,939,002	\$8,990,583
Free.....	4,272,252	3,876,573	4,297,170	6,417,596
Bullion and specie.....	1,362,832	2,253,128	1,687,436	1,775,148
	\$13,654,113	\$14,402,150	\$12,923,608	\$17,183,327

THE TEA TRADE OF EUROPE AND THE UNITED STATES.

The United States, with but little over twenty-six millions of inhabitants, ten millions less than France, and nine millions less than the German Zollverein, in one article of trade with Southern Asia, outdoes these more populous countries of civilized Europe. In the year 1851 England carried 65,100,000 pounds of tea from China to Europe, and 9,304,000 pounds to India and Australia; the United

States exported from China 34,327,000 pounds; Holland, 3,000,000 pounds; and other nations, 3,000,000 pounds, while Russia carried 14,000,000 pounds by land. According to the report of the Secretary of the Treasury for 1854-5, 35,303,884 pounds of tea were brought to the United States ports, as follows:—

From the Dutch East Indies	20,740	From the Philippine Islands	160,350
From the British East Indies	636,121	From China.....	34,366,665

The wholesale value of this amount was estimated at \$7,000,000. Besides this amount, nearly 12,000,000 pounds were carried in United States bottoms from China to foreign ports. Only 560 pounds were exported from the United States. This country, therefore, itself consumes the small amount of 35,200,000 pounds.

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

OF THE INSPECTION OF VESSELS IN THE PORTS OF VIRGINIA.

The Legislature of Virginia passed, at its last session, 1856, the following bill, providing additional protection for the slave property of the citizens of the Commonwealth of Virginia:—

1. Be it enacted by the General Assembly, that it shall not be lawful for any vessel of any size or description whatever, owned in whole or in part by any citizen or resident of another State, and about to sail or steam from any port or place in this State for any port or place north of and beyond the capes of Virginia, to depart from the waters of this Commonwealth until said vessel has undergone the inspection hereinafter provided for in this act, and received a certificate to that effect. If any such vessel shall depart from the State without such certificate of inspection, the captain or owner thereof shall forfeit and pay the sum of five hundred dollars, to be recovered by any person who will sue for the same in any Court of Record in this State, in the name of the Governor of the Commonwealth. Pending said suit, the vessel of said captain or owner shall not leave the State until bond be given by the captain or owner, or other person for him, payable to the Governor, with two or more sureties satisfactory to the Court, in the penalty of one thousand dollars, for the payment of the forfeit of fine, together with the cost and expenses incurred in enforcing the same; and in default of such bond, the vessel shall be held liable; provided, that nothing contained in this section shall apply to vessels belonging to the United States Government, or vessels, American or foreign, bound direct to any foreign country other than the British American provinces.

2. The pilots licensed under the laws of Virginia, and while attached to a vessel regularly employed as a pilot boat, are hereby constituted and appointed inspectors to execute this act, so far as the same may be applicable to the Chesapeake Bay and the waters tributary thereto, within the jurisdiction of this State, together with such other inspectors as may be appointed by virtue of this act.

3. The branch or license issued to a pilot according to the provisions of the 92d chapter of the Code, shall be sufficient evidence that he is authorized and empowered to act as inspector as aforesaid.

4. It shall be the duty of the inspector or other person authorized to act under this law, to examine and search all vessels hereinbefore described, to see that no slave or person held to service or labor in this State, or person charged with the commission of any crime within the State, shall be concealed on board said vessel. Such inspection shall be made within twelve hours of the time of departure of such vessel from the waters of Virginia, and may be made in any bay, river, creek or other water-course of the State: Provided, however, that steamers plying as

regular packets between ports in Virginia and those north of and outside of the capes of Virginia, shall be inspected at the port of departure nearest to Old Point Comfort.

5. A vessel so inspected and getting under way, with intent to leave the waters of the State, if she returns to an anchorage above Back River Point or within Old Point Comfort, shall be again inspected and charged as if an original case. If such vessel be driven back by stress of weather to seek a harbor, she shall be exempt from payment of a second fee, unless she holds intercourse with the shore.

6. If, after searching the vessel, the inspector see no just cause to detain her, he shall give to the captain a certificate to that effect. If, however, upon such inspection, or in any other manner, any slave or person held to service or labor, or any person charged with any crime, be found on board of any vessel whatever, for the purpose aforesaid, or said vessel be detected in the act of leaving this Commonwealth with any such slave or person on board, or otherwise violating the provisions of this act, he shall attach said vessel, and arrest all persons on board, to be delivered up to the sergeant or sheriff of the nearest port in this Commonwealth, to be dealt with according to law.

7. If any inspector or other officer be opposed, or shall have reason to suspect that he will be opposed or obstructed in the discharge of any duty required of him under this act, he shall have power to summon and command the force of any county or corporation to aid him in the discharge of such duty; and every person who shall resist, obstruct or refuse to aid any inspector or other officer in the discharge of such duty, shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and upon conviction thereof shall be fined and imprisoned as in other cases of misdemeanor.

8. For every inspection of a vessel under this law, the inspector or other officer shall be entitled to demand and receive the sum of five dollars; for the payment of which such vessel shall be liable, and the inspector or other officer may seize and hold her till the same is paid, together with all charges incurred in taking care of the vessel, as well as in enforcing the payment of the same: Provided, that steam packets trading regularly between the waters of the Virginia and ports north of and beyond the capes of Virginia shall pay not more than five dollars for each inspection under the provision of this act: Provided, however, that for every inspection of a vessel engaged in the coal trade the inspector shall not receive a greater sum than two dollars.

9. Any inspector or other person apprehending a slave in the act of escaping from the State, on board a vessel trading to or belonging to a non-slaveholding State, or who shall give information that will lead to the recovery of any slave as aforesaid, shall be entitled to a reward of one hundred dollars, to be paid by the owner of such slave, or by the fiduciary having charge of the estate to which such slave belongs; and if the vessel be forfeited under the provisions of this act, he shall be entitled to one-half of the proceeds arising from the sale of the vessel; and if the same amounts to \$100 he shall not receive from the owner the above reward of \$100.

10. An inspector permitting a slave to escape for the want of proper exertion, or by neglect in the discharge of his duty, shall be fined one hundred dollars; or if for like causes he permit a vessel, which the law requires him to inspect, to leave the State without inspection, he shall be fined not less than twenty nor more than fifty dollars, to be recovered by warrant by any person who will proceed against him.

11. No pilot acting under the authority of the laws of this State shall pilot out of the jurisdiction of this State any such vessel as is described in this act, which has not obtained and exhibited to him the certificate of inspection hereby required; and if any pilot should so offend, he shall forfeit and pay not less than twenty nor more than fifty dollars, to be recovered in the mode prescribed in the next preceding section of this act.

12. The courts of the several counties or corporations situated on the Chesapeake Bay or its tributaries, by an order entered of record, may appoint one or

more inspectors at such place or places within their respective districts as they may deem necessary, to prevent the escape or for the recapture of slaves attempting to escape beyond the limits of the State, and to search or otherwise examine all vessels trading to such counties or corporations. The expense in such cases to be provided for by a levy on negroes now taxed by law; but no inspection by county or corporation officers thus appointed shall supersede the inspection of such vessel by pilots and other inspectors, as specially provided for in this act.

13. It shall be lawful for the county court of any county, upon the application of five or more slaveholders, residents of the counties where the application is made, by an order entered of record, to designate one or more police stations in their respective counties, and a captain and three or more other persons as a police patrol on each station, for the recapture of fugitive slaves; which patrol shall be in service at such times and such stations as the court shall direct by their order aforesaid; and the said court shall allow a reasonable compensation to be paid to the members of such patrol; and for that purpose the said court may from time to time direct a levy on negroes now taxed by law, at such rate *per capita* as the court may think sufficient, to be collected and accounted for by the sheriff as other county levies, and to be called "the fugitive slave tax." The owner of each fugitive slave in the act of escaping beyond the limits of the Commonwealth to a non-slaveholding State, and captured by the patrol aforesaid, shall pay for each slave over fifteen and under forty-five years old, a reward of one hundred dollars; for each slave over five and under fifteen years old, the sum of sixty dollars; and for all others, the sum of forty dollars. Which reward shall be divided equally among the members of the patrol retaking the slave and actually on duty at the time. And to secure the payment of said reward, the patrol may retain possession and use of the slave until the reward is paid or secured to them.

14. The Executive of this State may appoint one or more inspectors for the Rappahannock and Potomac rivers, if he shall deem it expedient for the due execution of this act. The inspectors so appointed, to perform the same duties and to be invested with the same powers in their respective districts, and receive the same fees as pilots acting as inspectors in other parts of the State. A vessel subject to inspection under this law, departing from any of the above named counties or rivers on her voyage to sea, shall be exempt from the payment of a fee for a second inspection by another officer, if provided with a certificate from the proper inspecting officer of that district; but if, after proceeding on her voyage, she returns to the port or place of departure, or enter any other port, river or roadstead in the State, the said vessel shall be again inspected and pay a fee of five dollars, as if she had undergone no previous examination and received no previous certificate. If driven by stress of weather to seek a harbor, and she has no intercourse with the shore, then and in that case no second fee shall be paid by said vessel.

15. For the better execution of the provisions of this act in regard to the inspection of vessels, the Executive is hereby authorized and directed to appoint a chief inspector, to reside at Norfolk, whose duty it shall be to direct and superintend the police agents or inspectors above referred to. He shall keep a record of all vessels engaged in the piloting business, together with a list of such persons as may be employed as pilots and inspectors under this law. The owner or owners of each boat shall make a monthly report to him of all vessels inspected by persons attached to said pilot boats, the names of such vessels, the owner or owners thereof, and the places where owned or licensed, and where trading to or from, and the business in which they are engaged, together with a list of their crews. Any inspector failing to make his report to the chief inspector shall pay a fine of twenty dollars for every such failure; which fine shall be recovered by warrant before a justice of the county or corporation. The chief inspector may direct the time and station for the cruise of each pilot boat, and perform such other duty as the governor may designate, not inconsistent with the other provisions of this act. He shall make a quarterly return to the Executive of all the transactions of his department, reporting to him any failure or refusal on the part of inspectors to

discharge the duty assigned to them ; and the governor, for sufficient cause, may suspend or remove from office any delinquent inspector. The chief inspector shall receive as his compensation ten per cent on all the fees and fines received by the inspectors acting under his authority, and may be removed at the pleasure of the Executive.

16. All fines and forfeitures imposed by this act, and not otherwise specially provided for, shall go one half to the informer, and the other be paid into the treasury of the State, to constitute a fund, to be called "the fugitive slave fund," and to be used for the payment of rewards awarded by the governor for the apprehension of runaway slaves, and to pay other expenses incident to the execution of this law, together with such other purposes as may hereafter be determined on by the General Assembly.

17. This act shall be in force from its passage.

OF THE BRITISH WRECK AND SALVAGE ACT.

Some doubts having arisen upon the construction of the sixteenth section of this act, (9 and 10 Victoria, cap. 99.) which empowers a receiver of the droits of the Admiralty to summon masters and others before him, and take their examinations with respect to vessels which have sustained damage, and especially as to the meaning of the term "distress" in that section, a case was lately laid before Dr. Harding, Queen's Advocate, by the Liverpool Ship-owners' Association ; and we subjoin a copy of his opinion, prefacing it with the section in question :—

"XVI. And be it enacted, That any receiver, or in his absence, any justice of the peace, shall, as soon as conveniently may be, examine upon oath, (which oath they are hereby respectively empowered to administer,) any person belonging to any ship or vessel which may be, or may have been in distress, or others who may be able to give any account thereof, or of the cargo or stores thereof, as to the name or description of the said ship or vessel, and the names of the master, commander, or chief officer and owners thereof, and of the owner of the said cargo, and of the ports or places from or to which the said ship or vessel was bound, and the occasion of the said ship's distress, and of the services rendered, and as to any other matter or circumstance relating to the said ship or cargo, or any of the stores thereof, as the said receiver or justice may think fit and necessary ; and the said receiver or justice shall take the said examination down in writing, and shall make two copies of the same, the one of which he shall send to the said receiver-general, and the other to the secretary of the committee of Lloyd's aforesaid ; and the said copy shall be placed by the said secretary in some conspicuous situation, in like manner as hereinbefore directed with respect to other reports, so as to be made to the said secretary as aforesaid ; and for every such examination by a receiver he shall be entitled to receive from the owner of the said vessel or cargo, or out of the produce of the sale thereof, the sum of one pound ; and it shall be lawful for the said receiver, or for any officer of the customs, at the request in writing of the said receiver, to detain such vessel or cargo until the said sum be paid : provided, always, that if any person belonging to the said ship or vessel, or otherwise, shall refuse to be so examined by the said receiver or justice as aforesaid, he shall, for every such refusal, forfeit and pay any sum not exceeding fifty pounds."

OPINION.

DOCTORS COMMONS, January 27, 1853.

I am of the opinion that the meaning of the word *distress* in the 16th section, is explained by reference to its use in the other sections, particularly sections 14, 15, 19, 21, 44, and 45. In some of these it is used in connection with "stranding," "running on shore," and "wreck ;" and in others, (sections 19 and 21.) in con-

nection with "saving and preserving." I am, therefore, of opinion, that in order to satisfy the meaning of the word in the 16th section, there must have existed at least some actual risk, either of loss or stranding, or of the happening of serious injury to ship or cargo. It cannot, in my opinion, be applicable to all cases of damage, however small. A ship may have touched the ground, yet make no water, and put back to be docked—she is not "in distress;" she may put back to replace loss of anchors, sails, or spars, and yet may never have been "in distress." In order to empower the receiver to take examinations, however, it is not necessary that the distress should actually exist; it will be sufficient if the ship has been in distress; but this distress can, in my opinion, only have existed where there has been substantial risk of loss, stranding, or serious injury to the ship or cargo. I am not aware of any case in point.

J. D. HARDING.

CHANGING THE NAME OF VESSELS.

Heretofore the name of a vessel once recognized by the government, could not be changed except by a special act of Congress. A law has recently been passed vesting the power to make such changes in the Secretary of the Treasury, a copy of which we annex :—

AN ACT AUTHORIZING THE SECRETARY OF THE TREASURY TO CHANGE THE NAME OF VESSELS IN CERTAIN CASES.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That the Secretary of the Treasury be, and hereby is, authorized to permit the owner or owners of any vessel to change the name of the same when, in his opinion, there shall be sufficient cause for so doing; and he may establish such rules and regulations as he shall deem proper for that purpose. Approved March 5, 1856.

NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

LIGHTHOUSES AND BUOYS AT THE IONIAN ISLES.

The following information has been received at this office through the Department of State :—

CORFU.

"TEGUOSO."—This is a light situated on a rock at the entrance of the north channel in latitude $39^{\circ} 48' 10''$ N., and longitude $19^{\circ} 57' 30''$ E. The light is fixed, and may be seen in clear weather 12 miles. The height of the lantern above the water is 100 feet. The height of the building is 55 feet.

"CITADEL."—This light is situated in latitude $39^{\circ} 37' 5''$ N., and longitude $19^{\circ} 56'$ E. It is fixed, and may be seen in clear weather 12 miles. The height of the lantern above the water is 240 feet, the building itself being 32 feet high.

"LEFCHINO."—This is a light-vessel moored in five fathoms water, on the north part of the shoal, in latitude $39^{\circ} 27' 30''$ N., and longitude $20^{\circ} 4'$ E. It shows, at an elevation of 27 feet above the water, a fixed light, which may be seen in clear weather from six to eight miles.

NOTE.—By keeping this light N. N. W. $\frac{1}{4}$ W. by compass, all danger to the southward of it will be avoided.

BUOYS.—There are two buoys placed on the shoal extending from Cape Bianco. The first, red, is about E. by S., two miles distant from Cape Bianco, in nine fathoms. The second buoy, black, is in nine fathoms on the southern extremity of the shoal, at the distance of $2\frac{1}{4}$ miles from the same cape. These buoys bear from each other nearly N. N. E. $\frac{1}{4}$ E., and S. S. W. $\frac{1}{4}$ W., by compass, about $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles apart.

NOTE.—It may be useful to know that these two buoys and Laka Light are nearly in the same line.

PAXO.

"LAKA."—This light is situated on Laka Point, in latitude $39^{\circ} 13' N.$, longitude $20^{\circ} 9' E.$ It is fixed, 369 feet in height, and may be seen in clear weather 15 miles.

NOTE.—This light is not visible between the bearings of N. by E., southward W. by N., on account of the intervening land.

"MADONNA."—This light is on the Madonna Island, in Port Gayo, in latitude $39^{\circ} 11' 30'' N.$, longitude $20^{\circ} 12' 20'' E.$ It is fixed, and may be seen in clear weather 10 miles. The height of the building is 70 feet, and the lantern is 107 feet above the level of the sea.

BUOY.—A buoy is situated on the Madonna shoal, and bears from the Madonna Lighthouse E. by S., nearly. It is white, with circular black stripes, and is moored in $4\frac{1}{2}$ fathoms water.

ST. MAURA.

"MOLE."—This lighthouse stands on the end of the pier or Mole, in the north anchorage, in latitude $38^{\circ} 50' 30'' N.$, longitude $20^{\circ} 42' 55'' E.$ The light is fixed, and may be seen in clear weather 9 miles. Its height above the water is 54 feet.

NOTE.—The bearing of Plaka Point from this lighthouse was found, by an astronomical bearing, to be N. $78^{\circ} W.$, or W. by N., (true,) or W. by N. $\frac{1}{4} N.$, (by compass.) Ships coming from the south and west must, therefore, bring the light to bear about S. E. (by compass) before shaping their course towards it. Ships coming from the south will open the light when it bears E. $\frac{1}{4} N.$ (The plan of this anchorage (No. 1009) is in error with reference to the above bearings.)

ITHACA.

"ST. ANDREA."—This is a small light attached to a post at the entrance of Port Vathy. It is placed on St. Andrea Point, and is only useful to guide vessels after they have entered the "Gulf of Molo," to the entrance of Vathy Harbor. It is elevated 30 feet above the water, and may be seen at the distance of four to five miles. Latitude $38^{\circ} 22' 20'' N.$, longitude $20^{\circ} 42' 30'' E.$

"LAZZARETTO."—This light is situated on the Lazzaretto (Port Vathy) in latitude $39^{\circ} 22' 5'' N.$, and longitude $20^{\circ} 42' 47'' E.$ It will not be seen until you are near the entrance of the harbor, into which it serves to guide vessels.

CEPHALONIA.

"GUARDIANI."—This light is situated on the southeast extremity of the island of Guardiani, in latitude $38^{\circ} 8' N.$, longitude $20^{\circ} 26' 30'' E.$ The building is 100 feet in height, and the light is 122 feet above the water, and may be seen in clear weather 16 miles.

NOTE.—In rounding this lighthouse great care is necessary on account of the shoal extending from the island. When to the south and east of the light do not increase the altitude of the upper part of the lighthouse from its base above $1^{\circ} 15'.$

"ST. TEODORO."—This light is situated on "Hook Point," (Port Argostoli,) in latitude $38^{\circ} 11' 13'' N.$, longitude $20^{\circ} 28' 33'' E.$ It is a fixed light, elevated 35 feet above the level of the sea, (the building being 20 feet high,) and may be seen in clear weather nine miles.

NOTE.—During the night, having passed the light, bring it in line with Guardiani light, and run with that mark on until you open the lights of the town, when you will have 12 fathoms in an excellent outside berth. "St George Castle" will be just touching an intervening slope; and in the day time you may run up abreast of the Sanita, and anchor with that mark on or a little closed in.

BUOYS.—A small buoy lies in six fathoms at the southern extremity of reef extending from St. George's Point, near the entrance of Argostoli Harbor.

A buoy similar to the above is placed in $2\frac{1}{2}$ fathoms on the northern extremity of the shoal extending from Hook Point Lighthouse.

NOTE.—A ship's length northwards of this buoy there are five fathoms water.

A buoy of about the same size is moored on a shoal in Argostoli harbor above the Lazzaretto.

A large black buoy is placed on the southern end of the shoal off Cape Scala; it lies in six fathoms water.

ZANTE.

"CRIO NERO."—This light is situated on Cape Crio Nero, near Zante anchorage, in latitude $37^{\circ} 48' 39''$ N., longitude $20^{\circ} 54' 34''$ E. It is a fixed light, elevated 93 feet above the sea, (the building being 25 feet high,) and may be seen in clear weather 12 miles.

NOTE.—This light kept S. W. by S. leads westward of the Montague Rocks, and S. W. by W. $\frac{1}{4}$ W. leads eastward of them.

"MOLE."—A light attached to a post at an elevation of 30 feet is situated near the end of the Mole.

BUOY.—A large black buoy is moored near the Demetrio Rock (St. Spiridione Shoal) in Zante Bay. It lies in six fathoms, off the north part of the rock.

STROFADES.

"STAMFANE ISLAND."—This light is on the Convent, latitude $37^{\circ} 15'$ N., longitude $21^{\circ} 1'$ E. It is a fixed light, elevated 127 feet above the level of the sea, and may be seen in clear weather 12 miles.

CERIGO.

"ST. GEORGE."—This light is situated on a rock at the west side of Capsalli Bay, in latitude $36^{\circ} 8'$ N., longitude 23° E. It is a fixed light, elevated 66 feet (estimated) above the sea, (the height of the building 21 feet,) and may be seen in clear weather from 8 to 10 miles.

(Variations of compass 9° W.)

By order of the Lighthouse Board,

THORNTON A. JENKINS, Secretary.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, OFFICE LIGHTHOUSE BOARD, }
WASHINGTON, August 22, 1856. }

LIGHTHOUSE ON EGG ROCK, OFF NAHANT, BOSTON BAY, MASS.

The lighthouse on Egg Rock having been completed, will be illuminated on the night of September 15, 1856, and every night thereafter, from sunset to sunrise. The house is square, $1\frac{1}{2}$ stories in height; it is whitewashed and surmounted by a tower elevated 3 feet above the roof, and capped with an iron lantern. The illuminating apparatus is a fifth order lens, elevated 87 feet above high-water mark, and should be visible under ordinary states of the atmosphere about 10 miles. The following magnetic bearings from this station are given:—Graves Bell Boat, S. E. by S.; Nahant, (East Point,) S. $\frac{1}{4}$ E.; Methodist Church, Swampscot, N. N. W. $\frac{1}{4}$ W.; Half-tide Rock Beacon, N. $\frac{1}{4}$ W.; Outer Dry Pig Rock, N. E. $\frac{1}{4}$ N.

By order of the Lighthouse Board,

C. H. B. CALDWELL, Lighthouse Inspector, 2d Dist.

Boston, August 30, 1856.

BELL BUOY OFF THE "HEN AND CHICKENS," BUZZARD'S BAY, MASS.

A black can buoy of the first class, with a bell weighing 300 pounds, secured on top in an iron frame, surmounted by a hoop-iron day-mark, has been placed off this dangerous reef. The bell is elevated 6 feet above the water; it is tolled by

the action of the waves, tides, and winds, and can be heard in ordinary weather about 1 mile. The day-mark is 2 feet in diameter, painted black, and is elevated 9 feet above the water. The buoy is placed in 7 fathoms water, hard bottom, about one-third of a mile south of the "Old Cock." The following magnetic bearings are given from this buoy:—Sow and Pigs Light-vessel, S. by E.; Seco-net Point, W. $\frac{1}{2}$ N.; Entrance to Westport Harbor, N. W. by N.; Mishaum Ledge Buoy, E. N. E. $\frac{1}{2}$ E.; Old Cock, N. by W.

By order of the Lighthouse Board,

C. H. B. CALDWELL, Lighthouse Inspector, 2d District.

Boston, August 18, 1856.

ATLANTIC OCEAN, FRANCE—PONTAILLAC LIGHT, RIVER GIRONDE.

Official information has been received at this office, that the French government has given notice that on the 10th July, 1856, a light, alternately red and white—each color lasting 20 seconds, without intervening eclipse—was exhibited from the summit of a wooden tower erected on the high ground of Pontailiac, situated near the entrance, and on the north bank of the River Gironde, on the west coast of France. The tower is 104 feet high, and the light 177 feet above the level of water, and should be visible 15 miles in clear weather. It stands in latitude $45^{\circ} 38' 10''$ N., longitude $1^{\circ} 3' 42''$ W. of Greenwich. The north channel leading into the Gironde is lighted already by three lights, exclusive of that of Cordouan—one on Point de la Coubre, the second on Point de la Falaise, and the third on the tower of Terre Negre.

SAILING DIRECTIONS. In entering the Gironde by the north channel at night, bring the white fixed light of Terre Negre on with the red and white light of Pontailiac, and keep them so until the Point de la Coubre light bears N. N. E., then alter course immediately, and steer for the revolving light of Cordouan, until you have brought the lights on Point de la Falaise and Terre Negre in one. Steer for and keep these lights in one until Cordouan light bears S. S. W., after which alter course to S. E. by S.

[All courses and bearings are magnetic. Var. $20^{\circ} 45'$ west.]

By order of the Lighthouse Board,

THORNTON A. JENKINS, Secretary.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, OFFICE LIGHTHOUSE BOARD, }
WASHINGTON, August 22, 1856.

LIGHTHOUSE ON HJELM ISLAND, DENMARK.

The following official information has been received at this office, through the Department of State, and is published in the *Merchants' Magazine* for the benefit of mariners:—

Should no unforeseen accident prevent, a fixed light, varied by flashes every four minutes, will be established during next autumn (1856) on the Island of Hjelm, situated in the Kattegat, in latitude $56^{\circ} 08' N.$, longitude $10^{\circ} 48' 30'' E.$ of Greenwich. The illuminating apparatus will be a lens of the second order, placed at an elevation of 167 feet above the mean level of the sea, on a round brick tower, 37 feet in height. This light will be distinguished as follows, viz.:—A bright fixed light will appear for a period of 2 minutes and 55 seconds; this will be followed by an eclipse of 25 seconds' duration, which will be succeeded by a brilliant flash of about 15 seconds' duration; then there will be an eclipse of 25 seconds' duration, after which the bright fixed light will reappear for the period of 2 minutes and 55 seconds, as above.

In clear weather, from the deck of a vessel 15 feet above the water, the fixed light should be visible at a distance of 18 miles, and the bright flash about 20 miles all around the horizon. Within 8 miles of the lighthouse the eclipse will hardly be observable.

COPENHAGEN, June 26, 1856.

AMELIA BAR, ENTRANCE TO CUMBERLAND SOUND,

LEADING TO ST. MARY'S, GEORGIA, AND FERNANDINA, FLORIDA.

The buoys on the bar and river are now arranged in the following order :—

Bar buoy is a second-class iron nun, painted with black and white perpendicular stripes. This buoy is just outside the bar, in 24 feet water at low tide, and can be passed on either hand; the lighthouse bears S. W., (the general course over the bar.) *Second buoy* is a third-class iron can, painted black, with the No. 1 in white; this buoy is just inside the bar, in 13 feet water at low tide, near the edge of the South Breakers, and must be left on the port hand entering. *Third buoy* is a second-class iron nun, painted red, with the No. 2 in white; this buoy is in 13 feet water at low tide, near the edge of the North Breakers, and must be left on the starboard hand entering. *Fourth buoy* is a third-class iron can, painted black, with the No. 3 in white; this buoy is in 12 feet water at low tide, near the edge of the South Breakers, and must be left on the port hand entering. *Fifth buoy* is a second-class iron nun, painted red, with the No. 4 in white; this buoy is in 14 feet water at low tide, near the inner point of the North Breakers, and must be left on the starboard hand entering. *Sixth buoy* is a second-class iron nun, painted black, with the No. 5 in white; this buoy is in 18 feet water at low tide, and is placed near the shoal running off from Amelia Island, and must be left on the port hand entering. *Seventh buoy* is a second-class iron can, painted black, with the No. 7 in white; this buoy is in 16 feet water at low tide, near the edge of Tiger Island Shoal, at the entrance of the Fernandina River, and must be left on the port hand going to St. Mary's. *Eighth buoy* is a second-class iron nun, painted with black and red horizontal stripes; this buoy is in 12 feet water at low tide, and is placed on the point of shoal formed by the junction of the St. Mary's and Cumberland rivers.

By order of the Lighthouse Board,

C. MANIGault MORRIS, Lighthouse Inspector, 6th Dist.

CHARLESTON, S. C., August 20, 1856.

LIGHT ON MOUNT NAVIDAD, CARTHAGENA, MEDITERRANEAN SEA.

Official information has been received at this office, that the Spanish government has given notice that on the 15th July, 1856, a fixed light, of the natural color, was established on Mount Navidad, on the west side, at the entrance of the port of Carthageña, in the province of Murcia. The illuminating apparatus is catadioptric, of the fourth order; the light is placed at a height of 125 English feet above the level of the sea, and should be visible 10 miles in clear weather. It stands in latitude $37^{\circ} 35' 30''$ N., longitude $0^{\circ} 58' 37''$ W. of Greenwich. Every vessel entering the port of Carthageña by night, and intending to anchor on its eastern side near the powder magazine, or near the suburb of Santa Lucia, should always keep the light in sight slightly open of Navidad Point, taking care not to lose sight of it, so as to pass clear of the shoal named the Laja, within the harbor. On the contrary, if the intention is to anchor in the part of the harbor known by the name of the Espalmador Grande, the vessel should lose sight of the light, by keeping as close as possible to Navidad Point.

LIGHT ON CAPE HUERTAS, ALICANTE.

Also, that on and after the 15th day of August, 1856, a fixed light of the natural color would be exhibited on Cape Huertas, in the province of Alicante, in latitude $38^{\circ} 20' 30''$ N., longitude $0^{\circ} 22' 37''$ W. of Greenwich. The apparatus is catadioptric, of the fourth order. The light is placed at a height of 124 feet above the level of the sea, and should be visible at a distance of 10 miles in clear weather.

By order of the Lighthouse Board,

THORNTON A. JENKINS, Secretary.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, OFFICE LIGHTHOUSE BOARD, }
WASHINGTON, August 22, 1856.

JOURNAL OF INSURANCE.

REGULATIONS OF LAKE UNDERWRITERS.

The Board of Marine Inspectors of the association of Lake Underwriters, held at Buffalo, August, 1856, unanimously adopted the following rules, specifications and suggestions relative to the construction, classification and navigation of sail vessels and propellers on the Lakes:—

RULES, &c. RELATIVE TO THE CONSTRUCTION OF SAIL VESSELS AND PROPELLERS TO CLASS A 1.

All the timber used must be of good quality, and free from sap and other defects.

FRAMES.—The parts of each frame must be either bolted or treenailed together, and the laps in vessels of 200 tons and upwards, shall not be less than two feet six inches, and joints well fitted. Each frame to be secured to the keel by two bolts, one through the floor and keel, the other through the keelson floor and keel.

SISTER KEELSONS, BILGE STRAKES.—Vessels about 150 tons to have sister keelsons, well bolted, and all vessels to have bilge strakes; the collective breadth of the latter to be equal to one-eighth the vessel's beam, and every strake must have one through bolt, and one blunt boat, exclusive of spikes, in each frame.

TRANSOM.—The main transom to have a knee at each end to connect it with the side of the vessel.

BREAST HOOKS.—There must be one breast-hook for every four feet of the depth of hold, and to have at least three through bolts in each arm.

ARCHES.—Vessels of 250 tons and upwards must either be arched or have thick ceiling, edge bolted, with a bolt between every frame from bilge strakes to deck clamps; the breadth of the arch to be equal to one-fourth of the depth of hold. Each strake of the arch must have one through bolt and one blunt bolt in every frame, exclusive of sufficient spikes.

CLAMPS.—The collective breadth of deck clamps to be equal to one-fifth of the depth of hold. In every clamp strake of seven inches in breadth there shall be one through bolt; above seven, two through bolts; above fourteen, three through bolts; and above twenty-one inches, four through bolts in every frame, exclusive of spikes, to be driven from the outside, and clenched on a ring or washer. The joints in clamp strakes to be scarfed, and the length of scarf must not be less than four times the breadth of the strake so scarfed.

CEILING.—Ceiling to be square fastened with spikes, for every foot in breadth; and in the thick ceiling there must be a through bolt at every foot from bilge strake to clamp in each alternate frame. The ceiling, either in the bottom or sides, may be diminished in thickness towards the ends of the vessel.

OUTSIDE PLANK.—In all vessels the bottom plank, ten inches wide and under, to be square fastened with spikes; and over ten inches to be fastened in proportion; but the plank on the side, under eight inches wide to be square fastened, and above that width to be fastened in proportion. In the planking and ceiling, no butts to be nearer than five feet of each other, unless there is a strake wrought between them, and then a distance of four feet will be allowed, and no butts to be on the same timber, unless there be two strakes between them.

BUTT BOLTS.—Vessels of 200 tons and upwards, must be butt bolted with a bolt through the next timber to the butt, and clenched.

BEAM FASTENINGS.—The deck frame may be either with or without carlins. When without carlins it must be secured to the side by one lodging knee to every beam, and one diagonal or hanging knee to every alternate beam. Or a shelf piece may be used instead of the lodging knees, to be jogged up to beams one-fourth of its thickness, fastened with a through bolt in every frame; and the beams bolted

thereto with at least two bolts in every beam. The deck frame, where carlins are used, must be secured by two lodging and one diagonal or hanging knee to every beam end, or the shelf piece may be substituted for the lodging knees as before mentioned. Partner beams, in all cases, to have diagonal or hanging knees. Vessels not exceeding 150 tons are exempted from using diagonal or hanging knees, provided their beams are well secured to the side by a heavy shelf piece, or a stringer, bolted in the same manner.

KNEES.—The siding of knees to be three-fourths the thickness of the beam they secure, and to have a bolt at every ten inches; the bolts in the arms must be through bolts.

CENTER BOARD.—The head ledges to center-board cases, in vessels of 300 tons register shall not be less than 7 by 10 inches; the center-board six inches thick; the plank for the case not less than six inches thick, secured with edge bolts of one inch iron, not more than two feet apart, each bolt to pass to the center of third strake of each bolting; the ends of the plank to be secured with $\frac{1}{2}$ bolts, eight inches apart, driven through and clenched on each side, and to have not less than four stay rods on each side of case, of $1\frac{1}{4}$ inch iron, running through the deck beams and bottom of vessel, and set up with screw. The first and second bolting of sides of case to pass through the keel and pocket piece and clenched. The head ledges to be secured by four one inch bolts at the lower ends, passing through the pocket piece and keel, and one through the keelson and clenched, the upper ends to be securely fastened to the beams. The keelson, along side the pocket piece, to be 7 by 16 inches, and to extend sixteen feet forward and abaft the case, and be secured with four three-quarter bolts in each frame, and one seven-eighth bolt between the frames into pocket piece. All vessels, under or over 300 tons, shall have their center boxes built in proper proportion to the above rule.

DEAD RISE.—All sailing vessels hereafter built, entitled to Class A 1 shall have not less than $1\frac{1}{4}$ inches per foot dead rise, measuring from center of keel out, one third of breadth of beam; and all vessels with less dead rise shall have bilge limbers and proper bilge pumps to entitle them to Class A 2.

CHAIN PLATES.—Vessels of 300 tons shall have chain plates 3 by $\frac{1}{2}$ inches, flat iron, or two parts of 1 inch, round iron, secured to the hull with $1\frac{1}{4}$ inch bolts and backers, eight inches long, secured with 1 inch bolts, and larger or smaller vessels in proportion.

MAST STEPS.—Mast steps are best fitted across the keelson, but however fitted they must be well and securely bolted; and the mast partners must be double kneed.

LIMBERS.—In vessels of 300 tons, limbers to be $1\frac{1}{4}$ by $3\frac{1}{2}$ inches—in larger or smaller vessels to be in proportion—and limber chains to be provided in all steamers and propellers; and the Board would recommend their general adoption in sailing vessels.

COVERING BOARD.—The joints in the covering board and rail to be scarfed, the length of scarf not to be less than four times the breadth.

PUMPS.—All vessels to have at least two good pumps, exclusive of bilge pumps; pumps to be cased, and in those whose bulk-head forward does not come down to the skin, one pump must be cased not less than three by two feet, to receive the suction-pipe of steam pump in case of accident.

SALTING.—All vessels hereafter built, and otherwise entitled to be classed A 1, must be salted, and the stops shall not be less from the covering board than one-fifth of the depth of the hold.

WATER-TIGHT BULK-HEADS, &c.—It is earnestly recommended that all steam vessels have two or more water-tight bulk-heads, from skin to deck, with accessible slides to limbers—one to be forward of the freight hold; and that all sail vessels have one or more water-tight bulk-heads and slides to limbers—one to be the forecastle bulk-head. It is also strongly urged on masters and owners of vessels carrying grain in bulk, to use good and sufficient shifting boards, it being the opinion of this Board that without them a vessel is not really seaworthy. It

is also the opinion of this Board of Inspectors that steam vessels navigating the lakes should be fitted with sufficient sails to control them in case of accident to the engine. They would also suggest that better means be taken to secure the hatchways and other openings in the decks of steam vessels, and more especially of propellers, as it is believed that many of the serious disasters occurring are in consequence of some of the above named deficiencies, and from being overloaded.

CLASSIFICATION OF LAKE VESSELS.—There shall be three classes—A, B and C—with two grades to each class, namely: A 1, A 2, B 1, B 2, C 1, C 2. Vessels hereafter built in accordance with the Rules of the Association, shall be entitled to Class A 1 five years. At the expiration of which time, if sound, and in good order, she shall class A 2 three years, B 1 two years, B 2 two years, and then into Class C. New vessels classing A 2 shall be entitled to remain in that grade 5 years, B 1, 3 years, B 2, 2 years and then into Class C. At any time, however, vessels are liable to be surveyed, and if from any cause whatever, such as stranding, collision, dry rot, or deficiencies in materials, &c., a vessel be found unworthy to remain in her class, the Inspector of the District shall place her in the grade to which she is entitled. But if the damage or deficiencies be promptly made good to the satisfaction of the Inspector, the vessel shall remain in her class until in due course of time she lapses from it. New vessels that are not qualified to class so high as A 2, shall be classed in the grade to which it is deemed by the Inspector they are entitled. Vessels already built shall have the benefit of the foregoing Rules according to their merits—time to be reckoned from the date of launching. Vessels rebuilt, or having received extensive repairs, shall have the benefit thereof by their grade being continued or raised; but in no case shall any vessel be continued in the A 1 grade longer than five years, or be raised to that grade after that age. Vessels built superior to the Rules of the Association, shall be entitled to a star on the Register, in addition to the A 1 Class—thus, *A 1. Vessels built of iron, if of proper thickness and strength, well fastened, and divided into three or more water-tight compartments, shall be entitled to Class A 1, ten years; A 2, six years; B 1, four years; B 2, four years, and then into Class C. Subject always to the same exceptions and rules as govern the classification of sail vessels and propellers constructed of wood.

RATES OF LAKE INSURANCE.

HULL RATES FOR SAIL VESSELS.

For the season.	A 1.	A 2.	B 1.	B 2.	C 1.	C 2.
Less than 200 tons..	6 per cent.	6½ per c.	7 per c.	8½ per c.	10 per c.	11 per c.
From 200 to 300 “ ..	7 per cent.	7½ per c.	8 per c.	9 per c.	11 per c.	12 per c.
From 300 to 400 “ ..	8 per cent.	8½ per c.	9 per c.	10 per c.	12 per c.	15 per c.
Upwards of 400 “ ..	8½ per cent.	9 per c.	10 per c.	12 per c.	15 per c.	20 per c.

For the year add ½ per cent to the above rates. Vessels in the lumber trade on the east shore and ports of Lake Michigan (Grand Traverse Bay excepted,) and east shore of Lake Huron to pay 2 per cent additional. Lumber vessels loading off the west shore of Lake Michigan (Green Bay excepted,) and west shore of Lake Huron to pay 1 per cent additional.

HULL RATES FOR STEAM VESSELS.

For the season.	A.	B.	C.
Less than 400 tons.....	8 per cent	9 per cent	15 per cent
Over 400 and less than 600 tons....	9 per cent	10 per cent	17 per cent
Over 600 tons.....	10 per cent	11 per cent	20 per cent

For the year add 1 per cent to above rates. For passenger and mail steamers and first class propellers navigating Lake Ontario only, to Ogdensburg, deduct 10 per cent from above rates.

SHORT RATES TO NOVEMBER 30TH.

April having expired, deduct from above rates.....	10 per cent.
May having expired, deduct from above rates.....	20 per cent.
June having expired, deduct from above rates.....	25 per cent.
July having expired, deduct from above rates.....	30 per cent.

Aug. having expired, deduct from above rates.....	35 per cent.
Sept. having expired, deduct from above rates.....	45 per cent.
Oct. having expired, deduct from above rates.....	55 per cent.

Sailing season from April 1st, noon, to November 30th, noon, on Lakes Michigan, Huron, St. Clair, Erie, Ontario and River St. Lawrence to Montreal. Hull risks on Lake Superior to terminate November 20th. The maximum proportion of insurance on hulls shall be two-thirds of the valuation on vessels valued at \$5,000 and under; three-fourths on vessels valued over \$5,000 and less than \$12,000; and four-fifths on vessels valued at \$12,000 and over.

Rates of particular average on vessels classed A 1 and 2.... Not less than 5 per ct.
 Rates of particular average on vessels classed B 1 and 2.... Not less than 7 per ct.
 Rates of particular average on vessels classed C 1 and 2.... Not less than 10 per ct.

PRODUCE CARGO RATES.

Shipped on A 1 vessels.....	deduct 5 per cent from standard rates.
Shipped on A 2 vessels.....	charge standard rate.
Shipped on B 1 vessels.....	charge same rate.
Shipped on B 2 vessels.....	add 5 per cent to standard rate.
Shipped on C 1 vessels	add 10 per cent to standard rate.

Fire Insurance for the winter on yearly hull policies, covers the equipments on board the vessel only; if removed, an additional premium to be charged thereon. No vessel shall load with railroad iron, pig metal, stone, ores or marble, wholly beyond her registered or American Custom House tonnage measurement, but if half, or less than half of her tonnage be laden with above articles, her lading shall not exceed her tonnage more than twenty per cent, or, if Canadian measurement, fifty per cent.

POSTAL DEPARTMENT.

POSTAL REFORM IN THE UNITED STATES.

Vigorous efforts will be made at the next session of Congress to accomplish a reform in our postal system. It is certainly desirable to have as good a system in the New World as they have in the Old, or at least in England. The movement has our hearty co-operation, and we will most cheerfully open our pages to the discussion of the subject. The following circular, emanating from a committee of the Mercantile Library Association of Boston, briefly and succinctly sets forth the prominent features of the needed reform, and at the same time presents an array of facts quite irresistible. We give the substance of the circular, and commend it to the careful attention of our readers. It will be perceived that there is nothing sectional, partisan, or political in the petition to be presented. It complains of no officer and of no administration, but desires certain specified changes in the Post-office Department—all of which, except cheap ocean postage, have been adopted, and have succeeded to a wonderful degree in England, not only in accommodating the people, but also in materially enhancing the revenue:—

1. *Uniform Postage of Two Cents.* No one can doubt the advantage of this plan who has witnessed its operation abroad or considered its influence in analogous cases. The mere saving in the expense of *handling* letters by the adoption of this principle in England, by comparing the cost in 1854 with the expense before the adoption, is amazing. The diminution has been from \$30 to \$7 per thousand; 443,000,000 letters in Great Britain, in 1854, cost in the handling (not transportation) \$3,233,195, while at the rate of cost before a uniform post-

age, the expense would have been \$13,309,470. If it be objected that uniformity is desirable, but why reduce from three cents to two, while the department is yearly becoming a greater burden to the government, we reply, a uniform rate of two cents will pay. The receipts of the English government are nearly double the expenses, and the proportion is increasing in favor of the department, showing that half a penny (or one cent) per letter, instead of two, would now sustain the department. Will it be contended that at double the amount which will sustain the British office, the United States office cannot be supported? Even if the English are more compact, are they not also more expensive in their scale of prices? Will Americans concede that postal machinery cannot be constructed in this country at double the expense which it costs in England?

2. Receiving-Houses and Letter-Carriers. Free delivery is the right arm of the English system, and at the same time it is the most profitable branch of the service. In London there are 1,385 letter-carriers, 498 receiving-houses, and frequent deliveries daily. The last accounts from England inform us that the number is to be further increased. An American now in England writes that he has often dropped a letter into a receiving-house, had it delivered to his correspondent several miles away, and received an answer by a carrier at his door, in three hours.

Drop-letters in England comprise nearly half of their whole number, and they have increased in an astonishing proportion under the present system. The number of these in six of our principal cities was recently ascertained to be 290,694 in a year. During the same period in England, in six cities, the number was 74,005,791. Had the proportion been the same in the two countries, our letters would have amounted to 26,863,552—an increase of nearly one hundred-fold.

A free delivery system might probably be arranged, by which the twelve or fourteen cities and towns immediately around Boston could have their letters left at the door of each citizen several times each day, at a cost not much exceeding that now paid for postmasters and rents in the same places. Who can estimate the vast social and economical advantages growing out of such an arrangement, exclusive of the profit to government which would certainly result from the greatly increased correspondence which this convenience would produce? Out of the 150,000 or 200,000 residing in the vicinity of Boston, 35,000 or 40,000 are daily in the city attending to business. What an accommodation to them and to their families would be the result of such a reform!

3. Money-Orders. This system was commenced in England in 1839, and consists simply of such machinery as enables persons, by means of drafts from one post-office to another, to transmit small sums not exceeding \$25. The best mode of showing the way in which this is regarded, is to compare the business in 1839 and 1854:—

	Orders.	Amount.
1839	188,921	\$1,565,623
1854	5,466,242	\$2,321,059

4. Cheap Ocean Postage. The London *Athenaeum*, in answer to the question, "Would ocean postage pay?" says:—Compared with the charge for goods and passengers, the letter rate is enormously high. A man weighing 200 lbs., with all his food and luxuries and baggage, is taxed £30, while a harmless bag of letters, of equal weight, content with a dark corner and left alone, is mulcted for its transport from Broadway to St. George's Pier, more than £230!

If mail packets can carry a man, with all his wants and provisions and luggage, for £30, a bale of letters or a bale of cotton can be carried for one-third of the same amount. If government wish for mail steamers to be at their control in case of war, the charge should be to the Navy, and not the Post-office Department.

5. Franking Matter to be charged to the Government. There is no justice or equality in taxing letters with the expense of sending government maps and pictures to a favored few; with equal propriety might the expenses of the courts, or of surveys, &c., be charged to the Post-office Department. The Representatives

ought not to bear the burden—neither should the poor woman or the orphan who has a friend abroad in California. Let government pay from the treasury for its own work.

6. *No Compulsory Prepayment.* Prepayment is very well; but is it just that when not prepaid, letters should be destroyed? We hear of small remittances detained here, and large ones there; of an estate of \$30,000 lost for want of a witness's testimony—confiscated for want of a postage stamp; of life lost by a letter not being received, when the stamp had been lost or stolen after being placed on the letter. With a charge of two cents when prepaid, and four cents when not paid, 98½ per cent of letters have been prepaid in England.

7. *Dead Letters to be returned.* Is nothing of value but gold or silver, or their immediate representatives? One would think so, judging from our postage laws. In England, these letters are returned every six days; and when the name of the writer can be ascertained from the seal or the outside of the letter, it is returned unopened, instead of being detained six months or longer, and then burned, as with us.

The number of dead letters in England is 5 to 1,000; with us, it is nearly 44 to 1,000. This fact, taken in connection with what we have said as to the increase of letters, proves the certainty as well as promptness of their system of free delivery.

Rowland Hill, in 1837, prior to the great postal reform in England, laid down four propositions:—

- 1st. Uniform rate of postage.
- 2d. Increased speed in delivering letters.
- 3d. Greater facilities for their dispatch.
- 4th. Simplification in operations in post-offices.

Although the increase of letters in England in 1845 was threefold what it was in 1839, it actually cost the government less to handle them; and with us it takes twice the number of clerks to do the same work as in England, owing to their reform, principally in uniformity and free delivery. Such has been the effect of these facilities in developing correspondence, that more letters have been circulated through the English post-office within the last four years than through the United States post-office during the whole period of its existence, from 1790 to the present time.

The merchants first led off in the English reform under Rowland Hill; they have done so in New York; others will follow. The people should speak and instruct their Representatives—they will hear and obey. This question addresses itself primarily to the large cities and suburbs; but it speaks to our whole Commonwealth and to New England as a question of the utmost importance to their family, social, intellectual, financial, and economical arrangements. It comes home to every individual man and woman—and with them we leave our appeal.

JOURNAL OF MINING AND MANUFACTURES.

THE MANUFACTURES AND PRODUCTS OF MASSACHUSETTS.

In a former number, (see *Merchants' Magazine* for August, 1856, vol. xxxv., p. 233-235,) we gave a statement showing the aggregate value of the various manufactures and productions of Massachusetts in the year 1855, as prepared by Mr. De Witt, the Secretary of State for that Commonwealth. We now compile from the same official documents a summary table, showing the value of articles manufactured or produced in the State, the amount of capital invested, and the number of hands employed, with a comparative summary of the returns of 1845. It will be seen by this statement that the total value of the industry of 1845 amount-

ed to \$124,735,264, and in 1855 to nearly \$300,000,000, a most astonishing increase :—

MANUFACTURES, &C, OF MASSACHUSETTS IN 1845 AND 1855.

Articles.	1855.			1845.		
	Value. Dollars.	Capital invested. Dollars.	Hands employed.	Value. Dollars.	Capital invested. Dollars.	Hands employ'd.
Cotton Goods	26,140,538	31,961,000	34,787	12,193,449	17,739,000	20,710
Calico	5,213,000	1,980,000	1,157	4,779,817	1,401,500	2,053
Goods bleached and col.	5,111,200	659,000	644	2,264,700	200,500	325
Woolen goods all kinds.	12,105,514	7,305,500	10,090	8,877,478	5,604,002	7,372
Carpeting	1,362,819	2,264,172	1,614	834,322	488,000	1,034
Worsted	1,448,740	1,236,000	1,062	654,566	514,000	846
Hosiery and yarn	207,160	69,980	256	94,892	42,500	238
Linen	1,440,000	550,000	910	145,000	79,000	192
Silk	300,000	55,000	138	150,477	38,000	166
Roll'd & slit iron & nails	5,612,816	2,342,825	3,025	2,738,300	1,906,400	1,729
Anchor, chain cables, &c	915,980	739,600	547	538,966	377,685	422
Pig-iron	641,540	567,400	323	148,761	155,000	235
Hollow-ware, &c.	3,256,538	1,613,600	2,276	1,280,141	713,270	1,267
Machinery	4,089,590	2,434,000	3,740	2,022,648	1,103,850	2,421
Steam-engines & boilers	3,255,000	2,099,500	2,638	208,546	127,000	221
Fire-engines	50,000	45	37,800	42
Scythes	120,532	66,000	144	113,935	69,590	171
Edge tools	626,654	409,860	484	94,441	48,225	94
Cutlery	573,625	398,206	705	148,175	68,725	197
Screws	180,000	120,000	230
Butts or hinges	22,000	15,000	38	25,390	3,500	49
Door handles & latches.	39,100	12,000	29	3,200	750	10
Locks	66,700	24,500	84	60,070	23,600	75
Tacks and brads	621,212	278,950	370	253,687	123,225	269
Shovels, spades, &c.	894,515	408,075	681	275,212	123,950	259
Agricult'ral implements	763,930	189,300	433	121,691	58,575	158
Iron railing, &c.	656,400	239,600	371	129,300	53,000	87
Copper	1,685,500	626,800	320	610,950	329,000	197
Brass articles	1,504,050	515,300	540	331,890	167,600	145
Britannia-ware	302,000	158,000	332	102,550	49,350	93
Buttons	267,120	172,500	229	56,080	51,500	60
Glass	2,648,125	1,805,500	1,887	758,300	700,200	630
Starch	195,800	161,000	48	119,950	37,500	39
Chemicals	1,124,765	1,095,600	340	331,965	261,700	113
Paper	4,141,847	2,564,500	2,630	1,750,273	1,144,537	1,369
Musical instruments...	2,295,680	1,280,700	1,765	548,625	293,100	427
Clocks	100,000	17,000	26	54,975	10,350	40
Sewing machines	300,000	97,000	184
Daguerreotypes	605,439	139,875	260
Watches, jewelry, &c.	2,105,200	720,500	1,263	305,623	126,225	293
Brushes	484,500	267,600	429	153,900	68,875	220
Saddles, trunks, &c.	1,220,049	327,807	966	422,794	144,540	648
Upholstery	1,876,800	554,250	600	354,261	124,700	275
Hats and caps	1,926,105	350,373	1,042	734,942	213,793	1,003
Cordage	2,478,410	636,400	1,000	906,321	543,930	647
Boats	130,161	58,550	212	82,943	164
Vessels	4,643,450	1,940,700	3,592	1,172,147	1,017
Masts and spars	247,638	199,900	167
Sails	921,299	168,050	519
Cards	440,240	196,600	154	323,845	171,500	147
Salt	350,971	187,324	261	79,980	399,285	584
R. R. cars, coaches, &c. .	2,352,955	949,770	2,491	1,343,576	553,434	1,881
Lead	340,000	165,000	68	90,880	72,700	50
Sugar refined	2,056,430	315	940,000	410,000	106
Sperm candles & oil. .	6,813,291	3,282,013	412	3,613,796	2,461,917	306

MANUFACTURES, ETC., OF MASSACHUSETTS—(CONTINUED.)

Articles.	1855.			1845.		
	Value. Dollars.	Capital invested. Dollars.	Hands employed.	Value. Dollars.	Capital invested. Dollars.	Hands empl'd.
Soap & tallow candles	7,720,533	1,582,500	445	886,156	405,872	343
Powder	228,125	54,000	54	165,500	120,000	49
Fire-arms	391,475	132,500	282	260,819	62,848	357
Cannon	54,151	50,000	40	82,000	120,000	48
Chocolate	197,013	103,000	57	81,672	47,500	27
Cabinet-ware, &c.	3,969,982	1,913,615	4,243	1,476,679	477,374	2,594
Tin-ware	1,451,240	570,975	1,131	793,624	343,710	719
Paints, &c.	910,190	171,000	71	356,200	253,500	106
Combs	557,422	271,060	611	198,965	73,100	340
Linseed-oil	890,000	600,000	93	181,100	77,000	34
Burning fluid, &c.	462,600	135,500	33
Glue and gum	532,650	124,450	138	387,575	283,675	93
Cotton gins	99,000	114,000	100	45,444	75,000	48
Flour	2,040,040	607,450	173	174,805	44,550	30
Leather tan'd & curr'd	10,934,416	4,152,426	8,143	3,836,657	1,900,545	2,043
Patent leather, &c. ...	1,271,942	227,700	400
Boots and shoes	37,489,923	*	74,326	14,799,140	45,877
Straw bonnets, hats, &c	4,905,553	14,511	1,649,496	13,311
Bricks	2,627,165	1,109	612,832	1,407
Math. instruments.	204,850	76	54,050	68
Tobacco and snuff.	988,790	775	324,639	572
Building stone	1,585,213	2,205	1,065,599	1,849
Marble	561,650	455	220,004	312
Lime	94,907	110	43,629	80
Miner'l coal & iron ore	111,475	225	21,669	78
Charcoal	237,469	689
Whips	505,500	367	111,947	526
Blacking	75,800	60	10,422	35
Blocks and pumps.	314,510	296	127,249	204
Mechanics' tools	1,142,614	1,048	161,899	256
Wooden-ware	745,711	610	416,366	806
Brooms	323,135	260	200,814	313
Gold pens	64,885	28,500	31
Lasts and shoe pegs. .	192,350	98,351	84
Lumber	3,664,462	3,413	921,106	2,506
Firewood	2,960,915	5,325	1,088,656	2,925
Whale oil and bone ..	7,766,996	14,546,548	11,364	10,371,167	11,805,910	11,378
Mackerel and cod.	2,829,640	3,696,436	10,551	1,484,137	1,238,640	7,866
Shad, salmon, &c.	73,156	485
Sheep and wool	464,889	923,420
Horses, oxen, cows, &c.	15,423,521	8,778,317
Butter, cheese & honey	2,161,845	1,528,089
Corn, Indian & broom.	3,061,731	1,438,788
Wheat	73,928	54,502
Rye	560,201	328,033
Barley	110,158	72,261
Oats	563,729	405,657
Potatoes	2,521,906	1,309,030
Onions	187,446	}	530,181
Turnips	116,351					
Carrots	148,041					
Beets	484,568					
Other crops	286,202					
Millet	5,509	8,476

* No return.

MANUFACTURES, ETC., OF MASSACHUSETTS—(CONTINUED.)

Articles	1855.			1845.		
	Value. Dollars.	Capital invested. Dollars.	Hands employed.	Value. Dollars.	Capital invested. Dollars.	Hands empl'd.
Hay	8,702,317	5,214,357
Apples, pears, &c....	1,315,241	755,382
Hops	47,461	32,251
Tobacco	57,473	16,686
Cranberries	135,199
Beeswax	942	981
Casks	802,374	257,947	828	269,935	487
Fringe and tassels....	433,000	66,500	291	54,300	11,700	106
Stone & earthen ware.	125,450	61,250	118	52,025	15,500	72
Doors, sashes, &c....	936,959	328,980	774	180,181	215
Gas	932,332	2,733,900	318
Pickles and preserves.	346,858	151,300	185
Distilled liquors	3,153,828	964,950	147
Beer	355,839	120,975	133	included in summary in 1845		
Matches	95,750	32,800	150
India-rubber goods...	968,000	438,000	462
Bread	3,592,609	640,000	1,137	included in summary in 1845		
Types and stereotype plates.	309,100	116,800	318	included in summary in 1845		
Boxes	997,783	439,125	792	215,105	235
Confectionery	278,576	52,300	65
Maple sugar	52,293	41,443
Porte-monnaies, &c...	262,700	37,000	299
Clothing	9,061,396	2,770,600	1,758
Swine	581,536	917,435
Milk	755,887	304,917
Poultry and eggs	52,688	25,891
Ice	639,100	701,700
Printing	1,351,318	749,550	1,134
Bookbinding	147,290	52,200	324
Gravestones*	11,756,756	3,802,347	8,101	5,231,723	2,410,760	3,281
Various articles	1,051,657	366,200	396

RECAPITULATION—TOTALS.

	Value.	Capital invested.	Hands employed.
1855	\$295,820,681	\$120,693,258	245,908
1845	124,735,264	59,145,767	152,766

The industry of Massachusetts, in proportion to its population, exceeds that of any other State in the Union. What the State lacks in natural resources, is made up by her capital, machinery, and the hardy industry of her citizens.

IRON CONSUMED IN THE UNITED STATES.

The American Iron Masters' Statistical Review has the following statement in reference to the amount of railroad iron used in this country for several years past, and the comparative make and importation for the same period:—

Total number of miles in use December 31, 1855.....	21,440
Total increase for eight years.....	15,655
Total increase for last five years.....	11,963

* Wheelwright stock, baskets, umbrellas, and a variety of other articles, not elsewhere enumerated.

Average annual increase last five years	2,363
Average number of miles in use for five years ending Dec. 31, 1854.	13,600
Iron required in laying 13,600 miles at 90 tons per mile, 1,224,000 tons, which, at 8 per cent average annual wear, gives iron required for renewal of track	Tons. 97,920
Iron required for last five years for renewal of track	489,600
Iron required for last five yrs. for new track 11,963 m., at 97 tons per mile	1,154,029
Total consumption of railroad iron for five years	1,643,629
Iron rails imported for five years ending June 30, 1855	1,143,629
Estimated production of rails made in the U. States last five years	500,000
Average quantity of rails imported per annum for five years	228,726
Average domestic production for five years	100,000
Total average annual consumption for five years	328,729

About 30 per cent of the consumption of rails is required for renewals, and 70 per cent for new track.

Thus far the iron imported has represented the number of miles of new track made, at the rate of one mile for every 97 tons of rails; and the American mills have supplied iron for the renewal of track. From this time forward, however, the American mills will furnish, not only rails for the repair account, but also for a considerable portion of the new track.

	Tons.
Importation of rails for year ending June 30, 1855	127,517
Production of American mills for year ending December 31, 1855	135,300
Decrease of importations from average of five years	101,210
Increase of domestic production on average of five years	35,300
Net decrease from annual average in 1855	65,910

The following table will show the rate of increase of the mileage of railroads for 9 years past:—

	No. of Miles.	Annual Increase.	Average.	
1847	5,265			
1848	6,197	932		
1849	7,350	1,254	3,692	1,231
1850	8,856	1,506		
1851	10,878	2,022		
1852	13,315	2,437	11,963	2,393
1853	15,511	2,196		
1854	19,438	3,297		
1855	21,440	2,011		
Total	15,565			

MANUFACTURE OF MALLEABLE IRON WITHOUT FUEL.

At the meeting of the British Association for the Advancement of Science, held in Cheltenham, England, in August, 1856, H. Bessemer, of London, read a paper on a new method of making malleable iron from pig iron, which deserves the attention of our iron manufacturers, as the process is very original, is stated to be perfectly successful, and destined to revolutionize the process of manufacturing malleable iron and steel. The following is the substance of his paper, which we have condensed for the pages of the *Merchants' Magazine*:—

For the last two years his attention had been almost exclusively devoted to the manufacture of malleable iron and steel, with but little progress, until within the last nine months. The idea occurred to him, that if molten pig iron at a glowing heat was run into a chamber and a blast driven through it, that the five per cent of carbon in it would unite with the oxygen of the blast, producing in-

tense combustion, because carbon cannot exist at a white heat in contact with oxygen.

He therefore put up an apparatus capable of converting about 7 cwt. of crude pig into malleable iron, and so successful was the result, that crude pig was rendered into malleable iron in half an hour.

He then put up a cylindrical vessel 3 feet in diameter and 5 feet high, like an ordinary cupola furnace, the interior of which he lined with fire brick. At about two inches from the bottom are inserted five tuyre pipes, having nozzles of fire clay. At one side of this vessel, half way up, is a tap hole for running in the crude molten pig iron from a common blast furnace, and on the opposite side is another tap hole, to run out the metal when the process is completed. A blast of air, of the pressure of 8 pounds to the square inch, is let into this cylinder a few minutes before the crude iron is allowed to flow into it from the blast furnace. The molten crude iron is then let in by its tap, and it soon begins to boil and toss about with great violence. Flames and bright sparks then begin to issue from the vessel's top; the oxygen of the air from the blower combines with the carbon in the metal, evolving a most intense heat, producing carbonic acid gas, which escapes: the metal is deprived of its carbon without roasting by fuel, as by the common mode, and thus it is rendered into malleable iron.

By this simple process, the heat generated is stated to be so intense that all slag is thrown out in large forming masses, and all the sulphur is driven off, together with deteriorating earthy bases, so that the metal is completely refined—more pure than any puddled iron. It is also stated, that one workman by this process can convert five tons of crude pig into malleable iron in about thirty minutes. Its advantages are painted in such dazzling colors that we are afraid to rely upon them implicitly. If they are such as Mr. Bessemer has described, a new era in the iron manufacture has dawned upon the world, and malleable iron will soon be reduced to a price but a little above common pig.

We hail every improvement in the manufacture of iron, either to cheapen its price or improve its quality, as of vast consequence to mankind, because it is the principal material employed in the mechanic arts; it is the great material agent of modern progress in physical science. Without it we would neither have steam-engines, steamships, railroads, cotton or woollen manufactories; we would be as deficient in machinery as our forefathers who lived in the age of bronze.

An immense amount of fuel is employed in the common process of rendering pig iron malleable. It is roasted in a furnace by fire heat for a very long period, until its carbon is made to unite with the oxygen, to which it is exposed, to form carbonic acid, which is driven off. The new process accomplishes the same result without the use of any fuel—the carbon in the metal being made the agent to decarbonize itself.

The heat produced by this process is also stated to be so great, that scrap iron placed in a small chamber near its top is melted. By this process, steel of different qualities, it is also stated, can be produced, by tapping the metal at different stages of the process after it boils in the cylinder.

THE SUGAR REFINERIES OF NEW YORK.

According to Mr. STONE, the well-informed statistical and commercial editor of the *Journal of Commerce*, the sugar refining interest of New York has increased, within a few years, to a business of great magnitude, till the city is nearly encircled by enormous refining establishments, easily recognized by their lofty walls and chimneys, besides several others of consequence in the neighborhood of the city. No longer ago than the year 1848 there were but two refineries in the city, (Woolsey's and Stuart's,) and now, notwithstanding the depression experienced last season, when two or three houses ceased operations, there are ten refineries, some of which cost from \$500,000 to \$800,000 or more, and two others will soon be added. The machinery and apparatus employed in most of these is of a very

complete description, affording every available facility for the purification of crude sugars in the most expeditious and effectual manner. Modern invention contributed largely for its improvement. The aggregate investment in this property is very near \$3,000,000, saying nothing of the enormous capital required to operate them. The aggregate number of men employed is about 1800. New York now ranks foremost among the sugar markets of the world. In order to afford a proper idea of the extent of the New York sugar refineries, we have taken pains to collect some statistical facts relating to this subject. The following is a list of these establishments, with an estimate of the quantity of sugar refined by them each year, as nearly as can be ascertained by particular inquiry:—

Names.	Pounds.
Grocer's S. S. Refining Company.....	40 a 42,000,000
R. L. & A. Stuart.....	40 a 42,000,000
N. Y. S. S. Refining Company.....	27 a 28,000,000
Booth & Edgar.....	11 a 12,000,000
Havemeyer & Moller.....	12 a 12,500,000
Mollers, Shotwell & Doscher.....	10 a 11,000,000
Greer, Turner & Co.....	12 a 12,500,000
Harris, Evans & Co.....	11 a 12,000,000
Excelsior.....	6 a 7,000,000
*Ockershausen & Co.....	3 a 4,000,000
	172 a 182,000,000

or say in round numbers, 190,000,000 pounds. The value of the quantity in ordinary years would be about \$15,000,000, but owing to the greatly enhanced cost of sugar it might, this year, be estimated at \$19,000,000 or \$20,000,000. Last year the quantity of sugar refined was excessive, so that a large surplus was thrown on the market, and prices ruled ruinously low, leading to the temporary or permanent suspension of several refineries. As one result, the quantity of sugar refined this year will be something like 15,000,000 lbs. less than was manufactured last year, and now the whole power of the refineries is taxed to keep up with the demand for immediate consumption. In addition to the above, Mr. Havemeyer is preparing a refinery in Williamsburg, which will go into operation this year; and Mr. Brunges, with associates, contemplates erecting a refinery on West street, near Canal.

The pre-eminence in this country, of New York, in the matter of sugar-refining, is shown by the following table, giving the number and production of refineries in the United States last year:—

New York and vicinity, 12 refineries.....	200 a 205,000,000
Philadelphia " 5 ".....	83 a 84,000,000
Eastern States " 5 ".....	43 a 44,000,000
Baltimore " 2 ".....	21 a 22,000,000
St. Louis	} 28 a 30,000,000
Cincinnati	
New Orleans	
	375 a 385,000,000

In the centralization and establishment, at this point, of this enormous refining business, is seen the result of successful competition with foreign labor and capital.

* Exclusive of molasses.

An important branch of industry has been transferred to this from other countries ; and already the importation of foreign refined sugars has almost entirely ceased. The diminution in the importation of refined sugars into the United States since the year 1852 is made apparent by the following table :—

	1852.		1855.	
Brown Sugar lbs.	450,312,593	\$14,430,734	468,307,412	\$14,413,887
Clayed, white or powdered	6,461,540	239,032	5,241,272	241,569
Loaf and other refined	736,958	43,081	207,990	12,091
	457,511,091	\$14,712,847	473,756,674	\$14,673,547

The smallness of the production of sugar in the United States, in comparison with the enormous consumption, (which in this country is much greater per head than in any other,) does not reflect favorably upon the improvement made of our natural advantages for cultivation, notwithstanding, Cuba must always be the great source of supply for the United States, as the cane grows almost spontaneously, and its cultivation can be indefinitely extended.

To show more particularly the magnitude of the business done by some of the individual refiners, we make a few statements respecting Stuart's establishment, which is one of the largest ; the value of the annual sales from this one concern being in the neighborhood of \$3,000,000, while the amount of raw sugar annually worked up has not been less than 40,000,000 pounds for the last three or four years. The number of men employed is upwards of 300 ; the annual consumption of coal is from 7,000 to 8,000 tons, and the cost of the single item of bone charcoal, required for refining, is about \$30,000, or nearly as much as that of the fuel consumed. The enormous quantity of 840,000 pounds of raw sugar is used every week,—equal to 763 hogsheads of 1,100 lbs.—showing that one hogshead passes through the refining process in about every 11½ minutes, of the six working days. The sugar is hoisted to the top of the building by steam power, requiring the constant attendance of several men, when it is emptied into an immense copper, and is very soon after converted into a fluid state, and conveyed hither and thither, throughout the building, by means of pipes, tanks, &c., while undergoing various processes of purification, and apparently in the same abundance that Croton water is ordinarily supplied to manufacturing establishments. Another large concern is the Grocer's S. S. Refining Company, whose building is probably the most costly establishment of its kind extant. Its construction involved an expenditure of not less than \$875,000.

Boston is another very large sugar market, and second only to New York in the amount of its importations. Besides what is required there for retailing, Boston has the most extensive distillation of rum in the United States. The usual import, previous to last year, has been about 70,000 hogsheads of molasses ; and of sugar 20,000 hogsheads, 80,000 boxes and 100,000 bags.

With the high natural advantages for the cultivation of the cane enjoyed in this country, it is a matter of regret that our advance in this particular has not been more decided, that the improvement of our resources might be in some degree commensurate with our increasing demands. A failure of the crop in the United States is invariably followed by an undue advance in Cuban sugars, advantage being taken of our dependence, and the comparative monopoly enjoyed.

STATISTICS OF AGRICULTURE, &c.

THE SUGAR CROPS OF LOUISIANA FOR TWENTY-TWO YEARS.

The editors of the New Orleans, (La.) *Price Current* have compiled with their usual care, from their own authentic and reliable records, the annexed statement of the sugar product of Louisiana for the past twenty-two years, showing the amount of each year's crop in hogsheads and pounds, with the gross average value per hogshead, and total; the proportions taken by Atlantic ports and Western States, and the date of the first receipts of each crop. By this statement it will be seen that the total product of Louisiana from 1834 to 1855, inclusive, a period of twenty-two years, was 3,898,740 hogsheads, valued at \$198,993,868, and that of this quantity the Atlantic ports took 1,316,033 hogsheads, and the Western States 1,934,527 hogsheads. The crops from 1828 (which is as far back as our estimates extend,) to 1833, summed up 281,000 hogsheads; which would make the total product in a period of twenty-six years 4,179,740 hogsheads, or 4,396,331,000 pounds. In an article on sugar, which we published in our columns in June last, it is stated that the estimated product of Louisiana in 1815 was 10,000,000 pounds, or about 10,000 hogsheads. In 1853, it will be seen by the statement below, the crop reached 449,324 hogsheads, estimated to weigh 495,156,000 pounds. We would here remark that up to 1848 the product in hogsheads is estimated, and 1000 pounds taken as the average weight per hogshead, but for the crops since that date we have taken the figures of Mr. P. A. Champomier, as we find them in his annual statements:—

TOTAL CROP.				
Years.	Hhds.	Pounds.	Av. price per hhd.	Total value.
1834.....	100,000	100,000,000	\$60 00	\$6,000,000
1835.....	30,000	30,000,000	90 00	2,700,000
1836.....	70,000	70,000,000	60 00	4,200,000
1837.....	65,000	65,000,000	62 50	5,062,500
1838.....	70,000	70,000,000	62 50	4,375,000
1839.....	115,000	115,000,000	50 00	5,750,000
1840.....	87,000	87,000,000	55 00	4,785,000
1841.....	90,000	90,000,000	40 00	3,600,000
1842.....	140,000	140,000,000	42 50	4,750,000
1843.....	100,000	100,000,000	60 00	6,000,000
1844.....	200,000	200,000,000	45 00	9,000,000
1845.....	186,650	186,650,000	55 00	10,265,750
1846.....	140,000	140,000,000	70 00	9,800,000
1847.....	240,000	240,000,000	40 00	9,600,000
1848.....	220,000	220,000,000	40 00	8,800,000
1849.....	247,923	269,769,000	50 00	12,396,150
1850.....	211,303	231,194,000	60 00	12,678,180
1851.....	236,547	257,138,000	50 00	11,827,350
1852.....	321,931	368,129,000	48 00	15,452,688
1853.....	449,324	495,156,000	35 00	15,726,340
1854.....	346,635	385,726,000	52 00	18,025,020
1855.....	231,427	254,569,000	70 00	16,199,890
Total.....	3,898,740	4,115,331,000		198,993,868

Years.	Exported to Atlantic pts. Hogsheads.	Exported to West.States Hogsheads.	First receipts new crop.	Years.	Exported to Atlantic pts. Hogsheads.	Exported to West.States Hogsheads.	First receipts new crop.
1834	45,500	44,500	Oct. 15.	1846	45,500	70,000	Oct. 7.
1835	1,500	23,500	Nov. 5.	1847	84,000	115,000	Oct. 2.
1836	26,300	35,000	Nov. 1.	1848	90,000	108,000	Oct. 5.
1837	24,500	32,500	Nov. 1.	1849	90,000	125,000	Oct. 11.
1838	26,500	32,500	Oct. 17.	1850	45,000	123,000	Oct. 17.
1839	42,600	58,000	Oct. 13.	1851	42,000	149,000	Oct. 19.
1840	38,500	46,500	Oct. 14.	1852	82,000	206,000	Oct. 9.
1841	28,000	50,000	Oct. 13.	1853	166,000	185,000	Oct. 6.
1842	63,000	60,000	Oct. 12.	1854	122,000	143,000	Oct. 4.
1843	34,000	52,000	Oct. 22.	1855	39,133	131,027	Oct. 10.
1844	101,000	70,000	Oct. 3.				
1845	79,000	75,000	Oct. 4.		1,316,033	1,934,527	

"The coming crop will doubtless be the shortest, in proportion to the extent of ground cultivated, that has occurred since 1835, when the yield was estimated at 30,000 hogsheads. There has been a gradual changing, for some years past, from the sugar culture to that of cotton, for we find by Mr. Champomier's statements that while in 1852 there were 1481 sugar houses, in 1855 the number had been reduced to 1299, showing a decrease in three years of 182. We also know that there has been a further material decrease this year, but the great falling off in the crop is referable to the damage from the remarkable continuance of cold and wet weather during the past winter, by which the rattoons or stubbles were almost entirely destroyed, as well as much of the plant cane, before or after planting. Under these circumstances some planters ploughed up their fields and planted corn or cotton, or both, and will have no cane. Others will perhaps make enough to replant for another crop, while some having light soil or well-drained lands, and having been favored by seasonable showers, may approach a fair average. These will have an excess of cane beyond their requirements for replanting, but whether they will sell from their excess to those wanting plants, instead of making sugar, and to what extent, we have no means of estimating. At all events the crop must be a short one—doubtless the shortest since 1843—as the extreme estimate named is 125,000 hogsheads, while some mark as low as 80,000 hogsheads, an amount altogether insufficient for the requirements of the West alone, and calling for an unusually large import of foreign sugars. In accounting for the decline in the production for years past, it is probable that it may be in some degree (possibly a very important one) attributable to the deterioration of the plant from the partial exhaustion of the peculiar qualities of the soil necessary for its sustenance. Should this be the case, it would be well for planters to supply the deficiency by the application of the proper manures."

According to a statement annually made up by the New York Shipping and Commercial List, the total import of foreign sugar into the United States for the year ended December 31st, 1855, was 205,064 tons (equal to 382,786 hogsheads of 1200 pounds each) against 165,925 tons, or 309,726 hogsheads in 1854; and the quantity of this description taken for consumption in 1855 was 194,052 tons, against 150,854 tons in 1854, or an increase of about 28½ per cent. The total consumption of both foreign and domestic cane sugar in 1855 was 379,197 tons, against 385,298 tons in 1854, or a decrease in the total consumption of nearly 1½ per cent. Besides the above, it is estimated that there entered into the consumption about 11,160 tons of sugar made from foreign and domestic molasses and about 14,500 of maple sugar, which, with the consumption of California and Oregon, estimated at about 5,500 tons, would give a grand total for the consumption of the United States in the year 1855 of 410,357 tons, against 415,000 tons in 1854. This amount is equal to 766,000 hogsheads of 1200 pounds each.

CONSUMPTION OF DOMESTIC ANIMALS IN NEW YORK.

The annexed list exhibits the number of beeves, cows, sheep and lambs, calves and hogs consumed in the city of New York and its environs, for each month in the year ending April 30th, 1856, with the aggregate amounts for the entire year :—

	Beeves.	Milch Cows.	Sheep and Lambs.	Veals.	Swine.
May, 1855	12,321	1,450	21,821	10,452	23,347
June	10,929	820	42,012	5,540	12,826
July	12,526	724	49,971	3,564	16,889
Aug	20,621	1,517	81,855	4,083	8,549
Sept	20,095	1,532	67,555	3,195	20,679
Oct	25,114	1,065	81,882	2,709	17,036
Nov	18,822	813	62,624	2,240	36,715
Dec	14,049	613	45,657	1,644	44,088
Jan., 1856	15,313	598	40,578	1,906	49,165
Feb	12,301	929	22,746	1,540	26,745
March	13,554	1,132	17,402	2,151	13,187
April	9,211	821	9,842	2,820	12,025
Total	184,826	12,014	543,445	41,844	281,051

STATISTICS OF THE DAIRY—BUTTER AND CHEESE.

The exports of domestic butter and cheese from the United States are on a much larger scale than many perhaps are aware of. During the fiscal year of 1855, the shipments of butter amounted to 2,315,249 lbs., valued at \$418,723; and of cheese, 3,846,568 lbs., valued at \$514,034. Of the butter, the largest proportion, 461,015 lbs., was sent to the British West Indies. To England there were exported 3,343,900 lbs of cheese—more than three-fourths of the entire shipment. Nearly 50,000 lbs. of butter were sent to China, and about 234,000 lbs. to Australia. Strange as it may seem, during the same fiscal year 879,000 lbs. of butter were imported into the United States from British North America, Hamburg, Bremen, Holland, England and France, for home consumption. Besides this, 605,211 lbs. were imported for exportation. The imports of foreign cheese were on a more extensive scale, the total amount being 1,526,942 lbs., valued at \$146,269. The Germans sent us 157,166 lbs. of their fragrant Limburger and other varieties, and the Dutch 220,021 lbs. France sent us the largest supply, viz., 1,002,146 lbs.

WHAT IT COSTS GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND FOR MILK.

Estimates have been made of the quantity of milk used in the United Kingdom which may well astonish by their vastness, amounting in some cases to 1,150 million quarts annually. Assuming that milch cows yield seven quarts as a daily average, and that the retail price is six cents per quart, 150,000 cows would be required to meet the demand, and the retail value would amount to the enormous sum of \$70,000 per annum. The dairy cows of London yield a larger quantity of milk than the abovementioned average—at least nine quarts daily—and the number is about 24,000; it follows that the quantity of milk consumed is about eighty millions of quarts annually, which will amount in value to about eight millions of dollars. The railways, it appears, are every year bringing more and

more milk to London. This milk is disposed of to the wholesale dealers at 10 to 14 cents per gallon; they dispose of it to retailers at 14 to 18 cents, who sell it in their turn at 6 to 8 cents per quart.

AGRICULTURAL STATISTICS OF VAN DIEMEN'S LAND.

In compliance with a wish expressed by the Royal Society of Van Diemen's Land, the government have permitted the following agricultural statistics to be printed. On the 1st of December, 1854, there were under cultivation in grain, grasses, and vegetables, 127,732 acres—showing an increase over 1853 of 11,286 acres. The following amounts of produce were on hand on the 31st of December, 1855, and 31st of December, 1854, respectively:—

	December, 1854.	December, 1853.
Wheat	bushels 1,078,099	715,723
Barley	125,835	106,263
Oats	525,547	497,162
Pens	6,665	6,715
Beans	653	1,005
Tares	1,467	1,972
Potatoes	tons 23,256	16,990
Hay	18,886	11,122

The import of grain in 1854 was valued at £21,656, of which £10,000 was in oats from England. The export of grain was valued at £96,785; the import of flour in 1854 was valued at £19,850; the export of flour in 1854 was valued at £147,321.

WINE CROP OF FRANCE AND GERMANY.

A correspondent of the London *Times*, who has traversed all the wine growing districts of France and Germany, says that the vine disease has spared the vineyards this year, but the vintage, owing to the unfavorable season, will be very small. In the graperies surrounding Bordeaux, the disease has been very severe for two or three years, and consequently there is but little fine wine, and the prices of all the common descriptions have risen enormously. But the vine itself is regaining its natural health. From Bordeaux to Toulouse is one continuation of hills and plains of healthy-looking vines, less and less cared for as the distance from the former town and of carriage increase. After leaving Toulouse we come into the great wine districts, which possess a climate and soil nowhere in the world surpassed. The disease has been very violent, and stocks were never so low or prices so high, and this year will be little if any better; but all anxiety as to the decay of the vine itself has vanished.

THE WHEAT CROP OF FRANCE.

The annual crop of wheat in France is estimated at 198,000,000 bushels, which leaves a surplus, after supplying the home market, of five or six million bushels for export. Last year the crop in France was so short that no French wheat was exported, but on the contrary, several million bushels were imported. This year the crop is again estimated to be from 14 to 28 million bushels short.

RAILROAD, CANAL, AND STEAMBOAT STATISTICS.

INTERNAL NAVIGATION.

To FREEMAN HUNT, *Editor of the Merchants' Magazine* :—

SIR :—Maine has her Portland, Massachusetts her Boston, New York State her Metropolitan City, Pennsylvania her Philadelphia, Ohio her Cincinnati, Michigan her Detroit, Illinois her Chicago, and Wisconsin her Milwaukee. These are rich and powerful States, and the political influence of each is directed to the aggrandizement of its favorite city. Indiana is one of the richest of the Western States, but, in consequence of her inland position, she has no metropolitan city. Now, if Toledo and the five counties lying between the Maumee River and the Michigan State line were separated from Ohio and attached to Indiana, the latter State would then have a position for a metropolis, which it would be her interest and inclination to build up. The effects that would probably spring from such a connection would be—

- 1st. A transfer of the northern division of the Miami Canal to Indiana.
- 2d. A sale of the company's interest in the Wabash Canal back to the State of Indiana.
- 3d. An enlargement of the locks and deepening of the canal, when necessary, so as to admit large class boats.
- 4th. A completion of the Central or White River Canal.
- 5th. The construction of a branch of the Wabash Canal across Illinois to St. Louis.
- 6th. The opening and construction of good State roads through the flat lands of Northern Indiana.
- 7th. The location of the State's financial and public works agencies in the city of Toledo.

First. Regarding the proposition to alienate a branch of the public works and a small portion of the territory of Ohio, it would be necessary to encounter the selfishness of the State. This State selfishness was at first the miserly guardian that stretched its withering protection over the territory of Toledo. Without, however, at present entering into a discussion of the merits of a question which was once settled by an arbitration of the general government, it may be proper to consider whether, when a State selfishness is opposed to a sectional interest which embraces important national considerations or policy, an intervention of the general government may not be properly employed for the settlement of such controversies.

Second. The transfer of the Wabash Company's interests back to the State would probably be so mutually advantageous as to create little or no difficulty.

Third. The enlargement of the Wabash Canal is a work in which the State of Indiana could profitably engage, and she is abundantly able to do it. The enlargement of the canal to a capacity for boats of 125 tons, would reduce the cost of transportation nearly one-half, and bring into profitable employment the whole canal, so that the produce of Southwestern Indiana, Southeastern Illinois, and Kentucky could be sent to the Lake; and if, instead of this, it could be enlarged

to a capacity, say for boats of 200 tons, with drawbridges for masted vessels, it would open an internal navigation through which the tonnage of the lakes could pass, in the fall and spring, to find profitable winter employment in the Gulf of Mexico—thus turning to profitable use an immense capital that now lies idle during nearly half the year.

Fourth. The Central Canal, passing through Indianapolis, could be connected with the Wabash Canal, and finished to the navigable waters of White River, or to a terminus at New Albany. This, on the same enlarged plan, would extend the lake navigation to the foot of the falls of the Ohio, and open a large trade between Toledo and Louisville.

Fifth. The construction of a branch of the Wabash Canal across Illinois to Alton or St. Louis, would take the trade of the Mississippi at that point—bringing the sugar and molasses of Louisiana, the cotton of Mississippi, the lead, iron, and tobacco of Missouri, and the corn and coal of Central Illinois to the lake.

Sixth. The city of Toledo being included in Indiana, would attract the attention of the people of that State to a capable lake harbor within their own borders, and influence a large amount of trade that now seeks other directions. The State would be interested in constructing good State roads through the low and level lands of the northern part of the State to Toledo, and these would induce the settlement of large quantities of land there, that otherwise must lay a long time unimproved.

Seventh. The location of State business in the new city would create a financial interest there that would rapidly develop it as one of the financial centers of the country. The advantages accruing to the general interests of the country, by the construction of these works, would be very great; and it is not now, as formerly, when large enterprises were undertaken only to draw their managers into difficulties and disappointments. The financial condition of the country is such now as to authorize the projection of any work which promises general utility and profitableness. The construction of these works would open an internal navigation unequalled, and make the country the first maritime power in the world. Ship-building could be carried into the regions of the far West, and this canal system would be constantly sending to the seaboard a class of persons that would rapidly become good American seamen; thus the foreign trade would be essentially benefited, and when trade was brisk in one quarter and dull in another, vessel property could be easily transferred.

T. G. MILLER, Toledo, Ohio.

MAGNETIC TELEGRAPHS ON RAILROADS.

The experience of the last year or two ought to lead every State Legislature to require that every railroad should set up and use constantly its own telegraph, connecting every station on the route, and all with the office of the superintendent. With reasonable care, collisions would then be impossible. Some roads have proved this.

The Erie Railroad has such a wire, and a thorough system of communication. The arrival of every train at each station is instantly reported; and if behind time, whoever is responsible for it must give his reasons, which are sent to headquarters instantly, or he will be dismissed. This capital system was put in op-

ration by that model officer, Mr. McCallum, and is worthy of being copied everywhere.

The Baltimore and Ohio Railroad also has a wire of its own, and a system, the details of which we are not familiar with, but which, no doubt, are very judicious. Travelers ought to show a preference for these roads and others that adopt some such modes of securing the lives and safety of passengers, and all roads neglecting them, after a reasonable time, should be avoided. It is the lack of any such encouragement to special care, on the part of travelers, that permits the laxity of system and the careless observance of general orders, which result in so many collisions, and such frightful loss of life and limb as are constantly reported in our journals.

JOHN FITCH THE INVENTOR OF THE FIRST STEAMBOAT.

In Judge Hall's "Notes on the Western States," is the following interesting account of John Fitch, who, in his endeavors to solve the great problem of steam navigation, long preceded Fulton, who reaped not only fame but wealth from his labors:—

In 1785, John Fitch, a watchmaker in Philadelphia, conceived the design of propelling a boat by steam. He was both poor and illiterate, and many difficulties occurred to frustrate every attempt which he made to try the practicability of his invention. He applied to Congress for assistance, but was refused; and then offered his invention to the Spanish government, to be used in the navigation of the Mississippi, but without any better success. At length a company was formed, and funds subscribed for the building of a steamboat, and in the year 1788 his vessel was launched on the Delaware. Many crowded to see and ridicule the novel, and, as they supposed, the chimerical experiment. It seemed that the idea of wheels had not occurred to Mr. Fitch; but instead of them, oars were used, which worked in frames. He was confident of success, and when the boat was ready for the trial, she started off in good style for Burlington. Those who had sneered began to stare, and those who had smiled in derision, looked grave. Away went the boat, and the happy inventor triumphed over the skepticism of an unbelieving public. The boat performed her trip to Burlington, a distance of twenty miles, but unfortunately burst her boiler in rounding to the wharf at that place, and the next tide floated her back to the city. Fitch persevered, and with great difficulty procured another boiler. After some time, the boat performed another trip to Burlington and Trenton, and returned in the same day. She is said to have moved at the rate of eight miles an hour; but something was continually breaking, and the unhappy projector only conquered one difficulty to encounter another. Perhaps this was not owing to any defect in his plans, but the low state of the arts at that time, and the difficulty of getting such complex machinery made with proper exactness. Fitch became embarrassed with debt, and was obliged to abandon the invention, after having satisfied himself of its practicability. This ingenious man, who was probably the first inventor of the steamboat, wrote three volumes, which he deposited in manuscript, sealed up, in the Philadelphia library, to be opened thirty years after his death. When or why he came to the West we have not learned; but it is recorded of him, that he died and was buried near the Ohio. His three volumes were opened, and were found to contain his speculations on mechanics. He details his embarrassments and disappointments with a feeling which shows how ardently he desired success, and which wins for him the sympathy of those who have heart enough to mourn over the blighted prospects of genius. He confidently predicts the future success of the plan which, in his hands, failed only for the want of pecuniary means. He prophesies that in less than a century we shall see our Western rivers swarming with steamboats; and expresses a wish to be buried on the shores of the Ohio, where the song of the boatmen may enliven the stillness of his resting-place, and

the music of the steam-engine sooth his spirit. What an idea! Yet how natural to the mind of an ardent projector, whose whole life had been devoted to one darling object, which it was not his destiny to accomplish! And how touching is the sentiment found in one of his journals:—"The day will come when some more powerful man will get fame and riches from my invention, but nobody will believe that poor John Fitch can do anything worthy of attention."

RAILROAD STATISTICS OF THE UNITED STATES.

The Secretary of the Treasury has prepared the annexed set of "interrogatories," which are to be addressed to "Presidents of Railroad Companies," with a view to the compilation of railroad statistics of the United States:—

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. What is the corporate name of your company? | 18. What number of miles is run by passenger trains per year? |
| 2. What is the date of its charter? | 19. What number of miles is run by freight trains per year? |
| 3. When was it commenced? | 20. What is the number of through passengers for the year? |
| 4. When completed? or if not completed, when is it expected to be completed? | 21. What is the number of way passengers for the year? |
| 5. What are the termini of the main road, and what of the branches? | 22. What is the number of tons of through freight for the year? |
| 6. What is the length of the main road, and what of the branches? | 23. What is the number of tons of way freight for the year? |
| 7. What is the length of the double track, if any? | 24. What is the mileage of the passengers carried during the year, or the equivalent number of passengers carried one mile? |
| 8. What was the cost of the road all complete? or the estimated cost if not completed? | 25. What is the mileage of the tons of freight carried during the year, or the equivalent number of tons of freight carried one mile? |
| 9. What is the capital stock paid in? | 26. What is the average speed of passenger trains? |
| 10. What is the amount of bonds issued? | 27. What is the average speed of freight trains? |
| 11. What is the amount of floating debt? | 28. What number of casualties for the year were fatal? |
| 12. What is the aggregate amount of debt? | 29. What number of casualties for the year were not fatal? |
| 13. What are the annual receipts? | |
| 14. What is the amount of operating expenses, including repairs? | |
| 15. What is the annual rate and amount of interest paid? | |
| 16. What are the net annual profits? | |
| 17. What are the dividends? | |

The Secretary requests that the answers to these interrogatories may be given from the last annual report of each company, with the date of the report, that they may be inserted in the blank left opposite to each interrogatory; and that the interrogatories so answered may be returned to the department at the earliest period practicable. When the compilation is completed and printed, it is the intention of the Secretary to send a copy to each president, partly to requite the favor solicited, and partly to disseminate the information collected and combined.

THE STEAMBOAT FERRIES OF NEW YORK.

The corporation of the city of New York controls most of the ferries, and it has been the custom of that corporation to sell leases of the several ferries for a period of ten years. By the charter of 1853 all the ferry grants are required to be disposed of at public auction for a term not exceeding ten years. We give

below a list of the different ferries connecting New York with its various suburbs, and the amount of annual revenue they severally yield to the city treasury :—

	When leased.	Time. Years.	Annual rental.
Hurlgate Ferry	1855	10	\$1,150
Thirty-fourth-street.....	1856	10	800
Twenty-third-street.....	1850	10	250
Houston-street.....	1853	10	6,500
Peck-slip Co., (three ferries)	1849	10	9,000
Catherine-street to South Tenth-street, Wilmsburgh	1853	10	3,000
Roosevelt-street	1852	10	3,000
Catherine	1853	10	16,000
Wall-street	1852	10	5,000
Hamilton-avenue, South, and Fulton-street.....	1851	10	35,000
Staten Island	1855	10	5,100
Courtlandt-street.....	1856	10	5,500
Barclay-street	1855	10	100
Canal-street	1850	10	600
Christopher-street.....	1852	10	350
Spring-street and Fort Lee	10	1,250
Chambers-street and Erie Railroad	1854	10	9,050
Forty-second-street to Weehawken	1856	10	50
Total.....			\$101,200

DIVIDENDS PAID BY RAILROADS IN MASSACHUSETTS.

The annexed statement exhibits the percentage of dividends paid by seventeen railroads of Massachusetts during the last five years, and the total cost of said roads at the beginning of each year :—

Railroads.	DIVIDENDS.					Average last 5 years.
	1851. Per ct.	1852. Per ct.	1853. Per ct.	1854. Per ct.	1855. Per ct.	
Boston and Providence.....	6	6	5½	6½	.	4 8-10
Boston and Worcester	7	7	7	7	6	6 8-10
Boston and Lowell	8	7½	6	6	3	6 1-10
Taunton Branch.....	8	8	8	8	8	8
Nashua and Lowell.....	9	8	8	8	6	7 8-10
Norwich and Worcester	4	4½	4	6	2½	4 2-10
N. Bedford and Taunton.....	8	8	7	7	6	7 2-10
Western.....	8	7½	6½	7	7	7 2-10
Eastern.....	8	7½	6	7	.	5 7-10
Boston and Maine.....	5½	7	7½	8	7	7
Fitchburg.....	8	6	6	6	.	5 2-10
Old Colony and Fall River.....	.	.	.	3	6
Connecticut River.....	.	5	4	4½	5	3 7-10
Providence and Worcester.....	.	3	6	7	3	3 8-10
Cape Cod Branch.....	.	2½	6 2-3	8	3
Worcester and Nashua.....	4½	4½	4½	4½	2	3 19-20
Lowell and Lawrence.....	4	4	6	6	4	4 8-10
<hr/>						
	Cost.			Cost.		
1851.....	\$44,313,300		1854.....	\$44,735,600		
1852.....	43,731,400		1855.....	46,761,400		
1853.....	43,757,700					

The Old Colony and Fall River railroads were consolidated into one corporation in 1854. The Norwich and Worcester dividends are paid on preferred stock. The surplus earnings of some of the roads have been carried from income account to the reduction of the construction account. Four per cent of the earnings di-

vided by the Eastern Road in 1854, was in East Boston Ferry stock. The dividend of three per cent declared by the Cape Cod Branch Railroad Company in 1855, was made payable in stock.

January 1, 1851, the seventeen roads named, cost \$44,313,300; January 1, 1856, \$47,570,500—increase, \$3,266,200. The net earnings of these roads in 1850 were \$2,997,300; in 1855, \$3,035,800—increase, \$38,500.

STATISTICS OF POPULATION, &c.

GROWTH OF THE CITIES OF THE LAKES.

[FROM THE CINCINNATI GAZETTE.]

Chicago leads the procession, having passed Buffalo the present year. Cleveland and Detroit are to follow next, to be succeeded by Toledo, which will certainly pass these, and be only second to Chicago, if indeed she becomes not a successful rival of that city in the long race for supremacy.—*Hunt's Merchants' Magazine.*

Cincinnati can afford to look on with pleasure at the rapid growth of her sister cities on the Lakes. The increase of Cincinnati, in 1856, will be quite equal to one-fifth the magnitude of the largest city on the Lakes. Never in her whole history has her physical and commercial prosperity been greater than it is now. She can therefore not only afford to look with pleasure on the growth of her sister cities, but she can see in that growth sources of future profit. Soon direct lines of railroad will connect us with Chicago, Detroit and Toledo, as they now do with Sandusky, Cleveland and Buffalo. We say direct, because we already have very good communications with them. These connections have already added greatly to the commerce of the city, and when they become more direct, and when (as under the new grants of government land must be the case) we shall have a direct line of railroad through Central Michigan to Mackinaw, to Green Bay, and through to the Copper Mines, to St. Paul's and the far North West, we shall bring the basin of the Lakes within our grasp; and as at certain seasons the Southern markets are the only available ones in the West, we shall compete with New York for the trade of that region. Nay more, when (as will also shortly be the case,) by means of railroads, Charleston and Pensacola will be out-ports of Cincinnati, here will be the central point of commerce for the trade of the whole interior. All connections from the Lakes to the Gulf will be here radiant and concentrating. Hence we say, we turn to the growth of the Lake cities without jealousy, and contemplate without alarm the growth of that portion of our country.

Mr. J. W. Scott, who wrote the article for *Hunt's Magazine*, is entirely right in one proposition, which the writer of this has maintained for thirty years, that in the interior of the country its greatest cities must arise. This accords with commercial and historical experience. The largest will arise in the valleys of such mighty streams as the Missouri, the Ohio, and the Mississippi; modified of course by the climate, health and institutions of the locality.

The Lake basin is the next largest continuous area, and will therefore have the largest secondary cities. The growth of the towns on the Lakes correspond very well with this general principle. Thirty years ago Buffalo was all the rage; speculation was rife, and Buffalo was to be one of the largest places on the continent. It did grow for twenty years with great rapidity, and then fell into a slower but more healthy progress. Then came Cleveland, and its growth in the last fifteen years has been very great. In the westward course of these Lake towns, Toledo, which should have been the next to receive the impulse, was, for special local difficulties (now removed,) passed by, and for five or six years Chicago has been the city for Western adventurers in town lots, and for the last ten years its growth has been more rapid than either of its lake sisters, although well known as an early French port, it could not grow till the country around it grew. In 1834 the first warehouse lots were sold in Chicago, and it now has a population of 80,000. This is certainly a surprising movement.

Let us now view the growth of the Lake cities,—taken together, in their progress and their comparison with the cities of the river. We give a table for the past fifteen years :—

	1840.	1850.	1855.		1840.	1850.	1855.
Buffalo	18,213	42,260	65,000	Detroit.....	9,192	21,019	40,000
Cleveland ...	6,071	17,034	55,000	Chicago.....	4,470	29,983	80,000
Sandusky....	1,484	5,088	10,000	Milwaukie...	1,740	21,461	40,000
Toledo.....	1,222	3,819	15,000				
Aggregate.....					42,292	170,644	305,000

The population of the chief towns of the Ohio Valley—Pittsburg, Wheeling, Cincinnati, Louisville and Evansville, and their immediate suburbs, amounts in the aggregate, at the present time, to about 430,000, or 4 per cent in advance of the lake cities. This is exclusive of St. Louis and all other river towns, not in the Ohio Valley alone.

From a view of the relative growth of the above towns, and the new internal communications which are in progress, it is quite obvious that Toledo at the west end of Lake Erie, and some point on Lake Superior, are to be the coming cities of the next few years—in the basin of the Lakes. Toledo has been kept back by extraordinary difficulties, but has great intrinsic advantages. So the great inland sea—Lake Superior—as settlements progress around its shores, must have a city, a greater one, probably, than either in the above table. Its facilities as a manufacturing town must be great, and that is the great sheet-anchor of city strength.

There are some facts connected with Lake cities which should be taken into view before it is hastily concluded that they will be opening cities—an event not likely to happen. One of these is, that they have heretofore been on a prolongation of the Hudson River and the Erie canal; in other words, on a line which hold a monopoly of Western transportation. Hereafter, this will not be the case. The relative amount of Western produce arriving at Buffalo is diminishing, while the vast amount of shipment on the Pennsylvania and Baltimore Railroad prove conclusively that commerce is resuming its natural channels—channels which nothing has been able long to change. The increase of business on the Pennsylvania Railroad is without a parallel anywhere.

While this is true, however, these great interior routes will not disturb the natural commerce of the Lake board, which is simply that which its own products and business creates. This is enough to make cities secondary only to those of the Great Valley. Buffalo, at the debouchment of the upper Lakes, above the Falls, must ever be an important place. Toledo, at the upper outlet of the Wabash Valley, and the lower side of a peninsula, will rapidly grow; Chicago will still increase; and in the far north-west, on the bays of Lake Superior, will arise some town of towering magnitude. On such cities, distant as they are from one another on the bosom of our broad Republic, the cities of the valley, favored with all the advantages of soil, climate and commerce, can afford to look and admire, regarding them only as the evidences of a common prosperity.

IMMIGRATION INTO THE UNITED STATES.

The number of persons arriving in the United States for the year 1855 was 230,476; of whom 200,877 were aliens, being less than half the average arrivals in the previous four years. Under the usual estimates of \$100 per head, brought into the country by these people, says the New York *Economist*, the result would be a falling off of \$20,000,000 in the receipts into the country. It is remarkable that the proportion of females is always about 70 per cent of the males who arrive in the country, and this average holds good for a number of years. In the last thirteen years, 1,805,055 males have arrived, and 1,195,755 females—making 3,404,871 souls. The sexes of the immigrants under 15 years of age seem to be nearly equally divided, but above that, the males greatly preponderate, as follows, for 1852 :—

	Males.	Females.	Total.	Excess Males.	Per cent.
15 and under	27,322	25,723	53,015	1,599	6
15 to 20	20,008	17,302	37,310	2,706	16
20 and upwards.....	92,851	47,258	140,109	45,593	98
Total.....	140,181	90,283	230,464	49,898	55

The greatest preponderance is between the ages of 25 and 35, in which the males are three times the number of females. Those under 15 are, of course, the children of immigrants, and exhibit the usual equality of births. The age of 25 to 35 is with males the season of enterprise, and they are impelled in greater proportion to migrate than the females, whom circumstances to a greater extent keep at home. That is certainly the class which would be most affected by the war drafts for men, but if that influence was very great upon the number of immigrants, it ought to show itself in a diminished proportion of males to females. In 1855 the proportion was as follows:—

	Males.	Females.	Excess Males.	Per cent.
1851.....	245,017	163,735	81,282	50
1853.....	236,896	164,181	72,715	44
1854.....	284,887	175,587	109,300	60
1855.....	140,181	90,287	50,894	55

It would seem from this table, that if the war had any effect, it was to urge migration, to escape conscription upon the continent. Probably, however, the chief reason for the decline in immigration to this country was the revulsion in railroads, which threw great numbers out of employment at a time of rise in food, by which means not only the incentive to come here, but the means of coming, were cut off, since a large portion of the earnings of at least the Irish, have been devoted to the transportation of their relations; and dear food has cut off earnings and filled the city tenant-houses with paupers.

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

THE "SACRED TRADESMAN."

"A tradesman is in the eyes of juries a sacred character, not to be mentioned without awe and self-restraint."—*The Globe*.

Rightly judged the impaneled blades, man,
Venging well the unflogged snip,
Sacred be the British tradesman,
Sacred from the ribald quip.
Is it fit for you to flout him,
That unmatched commercial saint?
You should never speak about him
Without awe and self-restraint!

White his nature, safe from soiling
As the alum in his loaves;
Green his soul, as coppers boiling
With his pickles in yon stoves.
Sacred hold his weekly dealings
Who on Sabbath holds the plates,
Spare his fine parochial feelings,
Rate not one who pays his rates.

Speak with awe of one who mixes
Divers poisons with his beer;
Speak with awe of one who tricks his
Customers with solemn leer;
Speak with awe of one who tells you
"On his honor you'll be pleased;"
Speak with awe of one who sells you
Tainted meat, until it's seized.

Spare him, while you see him pumping
Water on the milk he sells;
Spare him, while his thumb is jumping
Back its inches in your ears;
Spare him, while he tips the flunkey
That the rich man he may cheat;
Spare him, while he "rides the monkey"
That devours the poor man's meat.

Bless the slop-shop's Jew parader—
(Hang the starving stitcher's grief!)
Honor the marine-store trader,
Trainer of the infant thief;
Bless yon salesman's rotten tables,
And his sofas stuffed with hay;
Bless yon goldsmith's graver fables,
"Not Mosale," did he say.

Yes, we're full of awe, and so forth,
Self-restraining, void of plaint;
But one little truth should go forth
Touching that same self-restraint.
Though the British tradesman gaily
Goes on puffing, smirking, lying—
Folks, oft bit, are learning daily
To restrain themselves—from buying.

—*The Press*.

COMMERCIAL LITERATURE.

LETTER FROM GEORGE FRANCIS TRAIN.

[FROM THE NEW YORK EVENING MIRROR.]

The writer of the following letter, George Francis Train, is a young merchant of great promise. Indeed he has already made his mark in the commercial world. In the brief space of two years as a commission merchant at Melbourne, Australia, he has been eminently successful, and accumulated a fortune sufficient to retire upon; but his active, energetic mind will not permit him to do so. Although of an ardent, sanguine, enthusiastic temperament, he possesses all the characteristics of a thorough merchant. He has, moreover, accumulated, in the legitimate occupation of the commission merchant, a fortune—avoiding every thing like speculation in trade. He sailed in August last for Liverpool, where, we believe, he intends establishing a mercantile house. His house in Melbourne is still in the full tide of successful experiment.

REVERE HOUSE, BOSTON, June 22, 1856.

TO FREEMAN HUNT:—

MY DEAR SIR,—Thank you for the two books which you were pleased to send and I to receive. It was thoughtful of you, and I appreciate the kindness as I value your friendship. I have been so long a roamer in distant seas and foreign lands, I was not aware that your active mind had given to the world two such valuable additions to its "commercial literature." I therefore lose no time in acknowledging my obligations for the present, and in congratulating you upon these new-born children of your never-tiring industry. Many young Americans like myself have grown up with your magazine from youth to manhood, and we are glad to own our indebtedness for the sterling lessons which you have inculcated—for the good advice you have given us in your monthly history of the world. You have never hesitated to rap us over the knuckles when admonition was necessary; while you have patted us on the shoulder when we have deserved your praise. It may be pleasant for you to know that the *Merchants' Magazine* is as much of an authority in the Eastern world as in my own land; for, having been in most of the ports of the Eastern hemisphere, I speak with knowledge when I say that, from Melbourne to Manhattan, from Java to Jerusalem, it is known and appreciated. And now I welcome most cordially your "Wealth and Worth." The publication is well timed, and it will be most acceptable to every young merchant. Its essays, its maxims, its laws of health, its science of political economy are well interspersed with the romance as well as reality of commercial life. Hence, while giving good counsel by its sage examples, you have made it most readable and interesting, while its moral tone is strongly marked by its Franklinisms. Not confining yourself to your own published writings, I notice that you have culled the choicest gems of literature that our language owns, or rather of that kind which may adorn a moral or point a reform. Why would it not be a good idea to have a few thousand copies struck off in a superior binding for Christmas presents? I am sure it would; for no sister could present her brother, no mother her son, no employer hand his clerk, or teacher give his pupil anything so valuable to him as a guide book, while floating on that

—"tide in men's affairs—
Which ta'en at its flood, leads on to fortune."

How long has the book been out? I should like a dozen copies for our clerks in Australia, which I will thank you to send to Boston, in care of Messrs. Enoch Train & Co.

Your "Lives of American Merchants" I have not had time to read; but in glancing at its pages, can but think it a most important acquisition to the counting house and the library. "Commercial Biography" is something new, but much wanted; for young merchants can only profit by associating with their elders, and in studying the high-toned example of those successful merchants who

have gone before. During my absence a new word has been added to our language—viz: "Old Fogysm!" What does it mean? for if it conveys disrespect for age, I will have nothing of it—for a young man would soon be on the quicksands without that pilot whose long experience has made him familiar with the many dangerous places in the channel of mercantile life. We are proud of Holmes. He tells us—

"If the young "Filly"—Progress, thou would'st ride,
Have young companions ever by thy side;
But if thou'd'st stride that staunch old mare—Success,
Go with thine elders, though they please the less!"

I am, very truly yours,

GEO. FRANCIS TRAIN.

THE FREE TRADE CONGRESS AT BRUSSELS.

We look forward to the day when commerce will be untrameled by restrictions and annoyance from Custom House officials. The signs of the time favor the prediction we now venture to make—that a quarter of a century will not have passed away before our prophesy is fulfilled. We may not live to see the "good time coming," but it is as sure and certain as the laws of progress.

At our last dates much interest was felt in Europe in relation to a "Free Trade Congress" that was about to assemble at Brussels. Imposing delegations from all the leading nations have been appointed, and three grand committees had been determined upon, as follows:—

No. 1. The Committee on Legislation.

No. 2. The Committee on Statistics, divided into three sub-committees:—1. On Agricultural Statistics. 2. On Manufacturing Statistics. 3. On Commercial Statistics.

No. 3. The Committee on Propositions.

The presidents of the committees will be *ex-officio* members of the Managing Committee of the Congress. The functions of the committee will be divided as follows: No. 1 will receive and examine all documents, propositions and statements relative to the commercial legislation, whether domestic or international, of each country. It will point out the defects of such legislation, the anomalies, contradictions and consequences, favorable or unfavorable, resulting from it, and the modifications which might be beneficially introduced.

Committee No. 2 will collect in its three sections or sub-committees, all facts and documents, statistical or otherwise, concerning the three great branches of human industry—agriculture, manufactures and commerce. On the one hand, the changes to which agriculture or manufacturing labor is subject; the cost of production in general; the question as to credit and transport relating to it; the fiscal or other hinderances which lessen the tendency to production, or the favors which stimulate it. On the other hand, the statistics of international trade; the price of produce in different countries; expenses of transport, duties, dues, taxes, or exactions to which commerce is subject, &c., so as to enable a general report to be presented, furnishing a picture of the various conditions under which exchanges are effected between all the members of the human family. The third committee will receive the different propositions which may be addressed to the Congress, will examine them, and refer them, in case of necessity, to the particular committee, the labors of which they refer to.

THE OYSTER TRADE.

According to the *Baltimore American* the product of the oyster trade of that city is equal to or greater than the product of all the wheat and corn raised in the State of Maryland. The whole shores of the Chesapeake Bay and its tributaries are adapted to the growth of the oysters, and as but one year is required for their full growth, an immense profit accrues to those in the business—a profit which is estimated at some three hundred to six hundred per cent. There are 250 vessels engaged in the business, which average 900 bushels to the cargo, and require nine or ten days for a trip. These vessels, making in the aggregate 6,000 trips during the eight months in a year in which they are engaged, give a total of 4,800,000 bushels per year sold in the Baltimore market. The oysters bring an average price of 50 cents per bushel, which gives a grand total of \$2,400,000 per year paid for oysters by the dealers in Baltimore. Some of the houses send by the Baltimore and Ohio and Baltimore and Susquehanna railroads, to say nothing of the other modes of transportation, from eight to twelve tons of canned oysters per day. The shells are carried, for manure, to all parts of Virginia and North Carolina. In the “shocking” of oysters, the shells will increase about one-fourth, which would give a total of about 6,000,000 bushels of shells, which sell for two cents per bushel, making a return of \$120,000 per year for the shells alone.

According to the *Journal of Commerce*, a comparatively small proportion of the oysters of which the Connecticut region is so famous, are natives there; but they are brought from the Chesapeake Bay, in immense quantities, in the spring, when they are planted, to be taken up in the fall. Their original cost is about 25 cents per bushel, to which 15 cents for freight is added. Native oysters, being generally preferred by epicures, are nearly all consumed at home, while the adopted Southern oyster is sent off in every direction to all parts of the country. The method of preserving them is singular. They are first opened and put in kegs or cans, which are often afterwards packed in boxes containing ice, of a capacity equal to from 12 to 20 gallons each. The enormous extent of this trade may be inferred when it is known that from 150 to 200 vessels, mostly schooners, are employed in conveying oysters to New Haven, the cargoes consisting of from 2,000 to 6,000 bushels. The profits, too, have been highly remunerative when ordinary sagacity has been exercised; one firm having cleared, during the last four years, from \$75,000 to \$100,000. “Failure” in the oyster is scarcely ever known. The business is chiefly engrossed by about twenty firms, the largest of whom send off from 1,000 to 1,500 gallons per day. The firm of Levi Rowe & Co., who have one of the largest establishments, with branch houses in Buffalo, Cleveland, Detroit, Hamilton, C. W., &c., estimate that their business will amount to 150,000 gallons this season. No less than 20 vessels are employed by them, and from 75 to 100 individuals, mostly girls and boys, find constant employment in taking out oysters from the shell, during six months in the year. These girls often acquire a wonderful dexterity in their department, the several movements required in going through the process, being performed with all the regularity and precision observed in touching the keys of a pianoforte. If set to music, however, the ear would be greeted with a succession of sounds much like this—click—gouge—splash—click—gouge—splash! &c. The first indicates the use

of the hammer in removing the edges of the shell; the second, the insertion of the knife; the third, the final deposition of the disemboweled animal in a tub, prior to packing. The hammer is thrown down each time it is used, but the knife is always retained in the hand. The openers receive as compensation two cents a quart, and some of them earn \$2 per day, though \$1 is more commonly earned. As there are about 150 oysters to the gallon, the individual who opens 100 quarts, or 25 gallons per day, necessarily opens 3,750 oysters during that time. The operation of "planting" is after this fashion. The oyster vessels, upon their arrival from the South, are anchored near the site of the proposed beds, and their cargoes are removed by small boats, which come alongside. The beds are formed by staking off the ground into small lots or squares, each of which is spread over with about fifty bushels, so laid that one shall not be on another. By fall the oysters have considerably increased in size and greatly improved in flavor. If allowed to remain too long in the beds, the oyster, not being acclimated to northern winters, perishes with cold.

THE BOOK TRADE IN THE WEST.

The cities and towns of the West, while advancing in material wealth, show a corresponding progress in literature, art and science. Our attention has been called to a statement in the Chicago *Democratic Press* on this head, which speaks volumes in behalf of Western culture. We quote from the *Press* the following statement:—

THE BOOK TRADE IN CHICAGO. Chicago is fast becoming one of the largest book markets in the country. In school books our dealers are far ahead already. The fall orders of Messrs. S. C. Griggs & Co. contain, among others, the following items of school books. Their own publications, 247,000 volumes, being more than double of their great order a single twelve months ago; D. Appleton & Co.'s publications, near 40,000; other houses, 60,000—total volumes, 347,008. Among the books ordered of Appleton & Co., are 455 copies of Commodore Perry's Japan Expedition. The same house have ordered for the fall and winter trade, 45,000 quires blank books, 8,000 reams paper, including 3,100 reams commercial note.

This house has already received 1,800 of Ticknor & Field's *Life of Fremont*, and 500 of Derby and Jackson's and Miller, Orton & Mulligan's—all but a few copies of which have been sold. Chicago, through Messrs. G. & Co., takes more of the *Encyclopedia Britannica* than any other city in the country. Forty-seven of the set—21 volumes, costing \$115 50 per set—are taken here. We notice among the fall purchases of the same house two copies of Roberts' *Views in Palestine*, a large English quarto, costing \$450 per set. It is one of the most magnificent illustrated publications extant, of which there are but four copies in the country. Also, a celebrated French illustrated work, "*Musee Francais*," in four volumes, royal quarto, costing \$350, a rare and beautiful book, of which there is but one other copy for sale in any bookstore in the United States. They have also the "*Royal Galleries of Munich*," in five princely volumes, price \$100. Messrs. G. & Co., publish, in partnership with Ivison & Phinney, New York, that popular list of school books known under the name of the "*American Educational Series*," of which upwards of half a million of copies have been sold by the Chicago house alone within the past twelve months. This series embraces among others, Sanders' new *Reading Books*, a name which, says the *Northwestern Christian Advocate*, has already become a "household word," and well it may when such almost fabulous quantities are sold in a single year, in a Western city, where less than thirty years ago, a white man's voice had scarce been heard. The above

orders were forwarded sometime since; but they were deemed insufficient, and yesterday we were shown an additional order for 78,000 volumes of the publications of this house. This makes a grand total of 425,000 ordered by Messrs. Griggs & Co., to meet the demands of the fall trade. What a commentary this upon the social and moral condition of the great Northwest.

We are informed that A. S. Barnes & Co., of New York, extensively engaged in the publication of books for schools and seminaries of learning, have received orders from Western cities, during the present year, for more than 70,000 volumes of their various publications. Stringer & Townsend, the publishers of a volume entitled, "Worth and Wealth: a collection of morals, maxims and miscellanies for merchants, &c.," have received orders from Chicago for some 700 copies, which have been sold in that city.

SUCCESS OF AN HONEST MAN.

The following extract of a letter is copied from the *Pennsylvania Inquirer*. It will be seen that the writer, who, but a short time since, as we are credibly informed, was a bankrupt and unable to pay more than thirty cents on the dollar, recovered from his embarrassments, and now pays dollar for dollar, and has a snug fortune left:—

August 5, 1856.

GENTS:—It affords me much pleasure to inform you that I have been so fortunate, through the lenity of my creditors, to dispose of a portion of my property, which again reinstates me in my former position, free of debt. The property which I once offered you for the debt, I exchanged for land—one-third of which I obtained a few days ago (\$4,200.) The balance I invested in city property in this place, which will bring me at least \$75,000. Had you pressed your claim at the time I asked you for an extension, I would have been unable to have paid over 30 per cent on my debts; and through the advance of this new country—which, by the bye, is unprecedented—I have now paid every cent, dollar for dollar, with interest, and would not take \$100,000 for what I own. I purchased, November, 1854, the undivided half of this city, which was then inhabited by Indians, but since that time purchased from them by government for \$1,500. It contains 1,200 lots, which are now selling briskly at from \$200 to \$1,200 per lot. We have now 1,400 inhabitants, the first of which, with myself, located here 5th April, 1855. We have three good churches, six schools, one printing-press, eight mercantile houses, with several mills and machinery establishments—and last, but best of all, the most religious and intelligent community of people that I have ever seen together in any country. Upon the sale of my property, I advised the speedy transmission of your money, which, I presume, is done by your attorneys.

Yours, respectfully,

We have not given the name of the city, as the letter was not written with a view to publication.

MERCANTILE FAILURES.

The following paragraphs from the "Trifleton Papers" should have found a place in our "Worth and Wealth" had they met our eye before. We will, however, give the readers of the *Merchants' Magazine* the benefit of the invaluable philosophy they contain:—

Ovid knew nothing, or at least tells us nothing of failures, as we call them. They are quite of our day, and incidental to our mercantile communities. We

best illustrate the credit system. We all owe each other, and so far is it possible for us to live on mere credit and nothing else, that when a great merchant fails, nobody is astonished that for years he has been sustaining an establishment, equipage, and what not, on borrowed capital; and that he hasn't had sufficient moral courage to come out and tell the world, like a man, of his bankrupt condition. We are a "fast" and "stunning" people, and each of us is eager to keep up with the times, and outstrip his neighbors in external display and glitter. We therefore spend money not only after, but before we have earned it, and when we become embarrassed, we run larger risks in hopes of large gains, and the result is every year a series of "failures."

In any point of view, it is a sad thing for a man to fail. A true man, indeed, never fails, in the proper significance of that term; but I use it now in its mercantile and American sense. Many a man would rather die than fail. No matter what anybody else may think, he at least sees something in it to be ashamed of—something ignominious almost; and if his nature be proud and sensitive, he will be inclined to break up, or rather, to employ a cant phrase, "break down" under it, unless he is sustained and encouraged by those about him.

Have you ever been called upon to sympathise with a man in such circumstances, and to persuade him that he had still something worth living for? Have you ever met his creditors face to face, and stood in the gap between their indignation and his despondency—despair even, oftentimes? If you have not, I have. I have seen all sides of human nature, the worst and the best, and my belief is, that though men are selfish, they are still open to conviction; and however harshly creditors may bear upon a failing man in the first flush of their excitement, in the end they will deal with him justly, leniently, generously, if he prove himself to be an honest man.

In a world like this, we ought certainly to make allowance for each other. None of us are infallible. All of us are liable to misfortune. When a man fails, then, however improvident and foolish he may have been in his manner of conducting his business, let us be at least charitable. Let us hear before we strike, and treat him as men and Christians should treat a fellow in his distress. We shall thus lose nothing, and we may gain what is invaluable.

ADULTERATION OF LIQUORS.

The London *Times* gives an account of a disgraceful imposition in connection with shipments of brandy to the colonies and elsewhere. The system is, to buy up empty brandy casks bearing the brands of the most noted Cognac houses, and send them to Hamburgh, Antwerp, and other places, to be filled with inferior spirit, and reshipped to Great Britain in transit, whence they are transhipped on board vessels bound to Australia, the Cape of Good Hope, &c., where the brands of these Cognac houses are in good estimation. It, therefore, behooves merchants trading with the various colonies to be careful to get their supplies from respectable sources, and to caution their correspondents against the receipt of any consignments of brandy on which they may be unable to place absolute reliance.

The practice alluded to in the *Times*, according to the *Journal of Commerce*, has found imitation on this side of the Atlantic. As high as eight, and even ten dollars, is paid for empty casks bearing a well-known brand, and when a suitable number of these much-prized casks are collected, the brandy is manufactured from raw whisky, which sells in our market at twenty-five-and-a-half to twenty-six cents per gallon, and then shipped to California and elsewhere as the genuine article.

 THE BOOK TRADE.

- 1.—*The Physiology of the Senses*; or how and what we See, Hear, Taste, and Smell. By A. B. JOHNSON. 12mo, pp. 214. New York: Derby & Jackson.

Mr. Johnson is known in the commercial world as the President of the Branch Bank of Ontario, and the author of a treatise on banking, and several contributions to the pages of the *Merchants' Magazine*, and particularly a series of papers on Life Insurance, published some years since in our pages. His treatise, "Religion in its Relations to the Present Life," published at an earlier period, must at the time have attracted the notice of the religious world, and another, "The Meaning of Words Analyzed into Universal Things," has not passed unnoticed by scholars. The present volume, it seems, was commenced some seventeen years since. He had long assumed that "to understand definitely our sensible powers would improve our knowledge of the external universe, it being derived wholly from our senses. To obtain the desired understanding," continues Mr. J., "I commenced with the simplest truisms I could conceive, as, for instance, that hearing informs me of sounds, seeing of sights, and as sight, sound, taste, smell, &c., are as indiscriminable from each other as a triangle and a circle, I sought to ascertain how many different theorems the truisms would constitute by a method which I invented, after the manner of geometrical demonstration." But we have not either time or space for further extracts from Mr. J.'s introduction. We may say, however, that for metaphysical inquiry, the mind of the author of this treatise seems peculiarly fitted. He discusses his theorems logically, and if the reader is not prepared to accept the conclusions, he will find much that is suggestive in the highest degree. This work of Mr. Johnson's is eminently deserving the attention of every one who would understand the interesting subject he so ably treats.

- 2.—*The Catholic Church in the United States: a sketch of its Ecclesiastical History*. By HENRY DE COURCY. Translated and enlarged by John Gilmary Shea, author of a "History of the Catholic Missions," &c., and member of the New York, Massachusetts, Maryland, &c., Historical Societies. 18mo., pp. 594. Baltimore: Murphy & Co.

Mr. De Courcy, though a native of France, is, we are informed, descended from officers who, in the French navy helped to humble the power of England on the seas during our Revolution. There is, we believe, no regular history of the Catholic Church in the United States extant. The present volume supplies a want long felt by Catholics in the ecclesiastical history of the country. It is "a compendious history of the Church, from its foundation under the auspices of Maryland toleration, through the dark ages of colonial bigotry, to our own free time, when the serene sky is darkened at times by the hurricane of prejudice." The translator has added to the work much original matter.

- 3.—*The Republican Party and its Presidential Candidates*: comprising an accurate descriptive history of the Republican party in the United States, from its origin in 1796 to its dissolution in 1832; of the Whig and Democratic parties during the interregnum; and of its re-formation in 1856, to defend freedom of speech and of the press, and to resent the aggressions of the slave power. With biographical sketches and portraits of Fremont and Dayton. By BENJAMIN F. HALL. 12mo., pp. 511. New York: Miller, Orton & Mulligan.

This book, as the copious and comprehensive title page clearly shows, has been written to advance the Republican movement. It nevertheless contains, in a condensed form, a chain of interesting facts connected with the political history of parties, that give to it value as a work of reference after the coming Presidential campaign is over. It appears to be, in the main, faithful in respect to the subjects of which it treats. Its circulation will, of course, be almost exclusively confined to the Northern, or what are termed the "Free States."

- 4.—*Draper's Physiology.* Human Physiology, Statical and Dynamical, or the Conditions and Course of the Life of Man. By JOHN WELBORN DRAPER, M. D., LL. D., Professor of Chemistry and Physiology in the University of N. York. With nearly 300 fine wood engravings. 8vo. pp. 638. New York: Harper & Brothers.

This is a publication of the Lectures on Physiology, given for several years past in the New York University, by the author, who occupies the chair on that science therein. The whole has been popularized, and the technicalities so far removed, as to enable the general reader not only to understand the subject, but to go through with it interested and amused. It treats of the nature and properties of the food, how it is digested, assimilated, vitalized, and so made a part of the human body; how the circulation of the blood is carried on, and breathing operates. It shows what is the structure of the nervous system and the brain, considers the wonderful changes going on in this mysterious part of our bodies, and what course of life should be pursued to maintain "the harp of a thousand strings" in good tune to the last. Such a book has been very much needed. It will supply a vacant space on the shelves of most libraries. We would, however, recommend the purchaser to read it carefully through before putting it away thereon, and by so doing he will carry into execution, practically, the recommendation of an ancient worthy—"Know thyself."

- 5.—*Religion in America; or, an Account of the Origin, Relation to the State, and present Condition of the Evangelical Churches in the United States.* With Notices of the Unevangelical Denominations. By ROBERT BAIRD, D. D. 8vo. pp. 696. Harper & Brothers.

This work treats of the religious character of the early European colonists; the state of ecclesiastical affairs at the epoch of the Revolution; the connection of the State governments with the churches; the character of American preaching; revivals of religion; the organization and doctrines of the different Christian sects; and the operations of missionary societies in behalf of the heathen. The work is constructed on a unique plan, and embodies an amount of information which is not elsewhere to be found on the subject within the same compass. In connection with its principal theme, it presents an ample summary of facts relating to the history, geography, statistics, and social condition of the United States, which possesses great interest for all classes of readers, and imparts a collateral value to the volume as a work of reference.

- 6.—*The Old Regime and the Revolution.* By ALEXIS DE TOCQUEVILLE, author of "Democracy in America." Translated by John Bonner. 12mo., pp. 344. New York: Harper & Brothers.

A calm, philosophical inquiry into the cause of the French Revolution, and the working of the Old Regime. In this work M. de Tocqueville has daguerreotyped French political society under the old monarchy; shown us where the real power lay, and how it affected individual Frenchmen in the daily avocations of life; what was the real condition of the nobility, of the clergy, of the middle classes, of the "people," of the peasantry; wherein France differed from all other countries in Europe; why a revolution was inevitable. The information derived under these various heads, it may safely be said, is now first printed. It has been obtained, as M. de Tocqueville informs us, mainly from the manuscript records of the old intendants' offices and the council of State. Of the labor devoted to the task, an idea may be formed from the author's statement, that more than one of the thirty odd chapters contained in the volume alone cost him a year's researches.

- 7.—*Tales of Travellers; for Winter Evenings.* By MARIA SLACK. New York: Robert Carter & Brothers.

A thick volume of nearly five hundred pages, containing tales extracted from respectable authorities only. Every story is calculated to fix the child's attention, and add to his real stock of knowledge. The Carters never publish books of doubtful moral or social tendency. In the present series of "Winter Evenings" the form of the dialogue has been adopted, without interfering with the narrative.

- 8.—*Memoir of the Life and Public Services of John Charles Fremont.* By JOHN BIGELOW, with splendid illustrations, and an accurate portrait on steel. pp. 480. New York: Derby & Jackson.

No less than three different memoirs of Col. Fremont have been prepared by different authors. First we had a memoir by the Hon. Charles W. Upham, member of Congress from Massachusetts, which was in press before the Presidential nominations were made. This was followed by the volume before us, and another by Mr. Smucker. Mr. Bigelow is associated with Mr. Bryant in the editorial management of the *Evening Post*; as a terse and able political writer, espousing the Republican cause with great vigor and earnestness. For fullness and accuracy, the two results which the author aimed at, this memoir will, we think, favorably compare with either of the other memoirs published. This volume includes an account of Fremont's explorations, discoveries and adventures on five successful expeditions across the North American continent, selections from his private and public correspondence, his defense before the Court Martial, and full reports of his principal speeches in the Senate of the United States. The memoir is dedicated to Baron Humboldt, as "the first to discover and acknowledge the genius" of the "Path-finder."

- 9.—*Peterson's Uniform Duodecimo Edition of the Complete Works of Charles Dickens "Boz."* Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson.

We noticed, in a former number of the *Merchants' Magazine*, the publication of the initial volumes of this edition of Dickens' works. These volumes, the earliest productions of the author, it will be recollected, embraced the celebrated "Pickwick Papers." We have now "Nicholas Nickleby," with thirty-nine illustrations on steel, from designs by Phiz and Cruikshank. This is, beyond all question, the most desirable library edition that has yet been published. It reflects, to use a hackneyed expression, the highest credit upon the enterprising publisher.

- 10.—*In Perils by mine own Countrymen*; three years on the Kansas Borders. By a clergyman of the Episcopal Church. 12mo., pp. 240. Miller, Orton & Mulligan.

The author of this volume informs us, that while it was going through the press sedate old friends remarked to him that the subject of which he treated was too grave to admit of the levity which is often displayed in this narrative. To this he replied, "my book is a record of facts. The style is my own, the material was furnished on the border." The scenes through which he passed, in some respects, appear to have been "supremely" ridiculous and laughable, while others were inhuman and well calculated to excite horror. Tragedy and comedy, as in all human society, are panoramic. It is, on the whole, one of the most readable books relating to "bleeding Kansas" that has yet been published. The dedication is unique, and characteristic—it is, "To Churchmen and Statesmen; to be handled without gloves, as Churchmen and Statesmen handled the author."

- 11.—*The Recent Progress of Astronomy*, especially in the United States. By ELIAS LOOMIS, LL. D., Professor of Mathematics and Natural History in the University of the city of New York, &c. 12mo., pp. 344. New York: Harper & Brothers.

Within the last fifteen years the number of known members of the planetary system has been, according to Mr. Loomis, more than doubled. A planet of vast dimensions has been added to our system; thirty-six new asteroids have been discovered, four new satellites have been detected, and a new ring added to Saturn. All these, and other discoveries, are noticed in the present work. One chapter is devoted to the recent additions to our knowledge of the planetary system, another to our recent knowledge of comets, another to fixed stars and nebulae, and the last to a general survey of the progress of astronomy in the United States. We have ever regarded astronomy as one of the most interesting and instructive of sciences, and its study cannot, we think, fail of ennobling the character and elevating the intellect of the human race.

- 12.—*The Life of Col. John Charles Fremont*, and his narrative of explorations and adventures in Kansas, Nebraska, Oregon and California. The memoir by SAMUEL M. SMUCKER, A. M., author of "The Life and Reign of Catharine II." "Nicholas of Russia," &c. 12mo., pp. 493. New York: Miller, Orton & Mulligan.

Seventy-one pages of this volume are devoted to the author's memoir, and the remainder of the volume contains Col. Fremont's narrative of his explorations and adventures, which are exceedingly interesting, and as they were not written in view of the Presidency, we apprehend no one will be disposed to consider this portion of the volume otherwise than reliable and faithful.

- 13.—*Songs and Ballads of the American Revolution*; with notes and illustrations. By FRANK MOORE. 12mo., pp. 393. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

This volume contains nearly one hundred songs and ballads, selected from the numerous productions in verse which appeared during the war of the American Revolution. Many of them are taken from the periodical issues of the time; others from original ballad sheets, and a few from the recollections of surviving soldiers, who heard and sang them amid the trials of the camp and field. The editor and publishers deserve our thanks for collecting and publishing, in a permanent form, these mementos of "times that tried men's souls."

- 14.—*Clara; or Slave Life in Europe*. With a preface by SIR ARCHIBALD ALISON, Bart. 12mo., pp. 533. New York: Harper & Brothers.

A translation of a novel by M. Haklander, who resembles, in several interesting particulars, according to Alison, Dickens and Bulwer. The translation was made by an accomplished lady, of whom Sir A. Alison says in the preface, "it is to be regretted that, although favorably known to the public by one charming work of fiction, the translator could not be prevailed on to give her name in the title page." Those who have read and admired the "Uncle Tom" of Mrs. Stowe will, we feel quite sure, be interested in the perusal of "Slave Life in Europe."

- 15.—*Political Essays*. By PARK GODWIN. 18mo., pp. 345. New York: Dix, Edwards & Co.

This volume contains a series of political papers contributed from time to time to *Putnam's Magazine*. Mr. Godwin was for some time associated with his father-in-law, Mr. Bryant, in the editorial conduct of the *Evening Post*. The essays, nine in number, display more than ordinary ability. Indeed, Mr. Godwin is regarded by many who do not sympathize with his political opinions, as one of the strongest and most accomplished writers in the Republic. The volume is dedicated to Charles Sumner, "because," says Mr. Godwin, "I know of no one more likely to approve of its general objects, or whose name will lend it greater honor." The dedication is indicative of the author's opinions.

- 16.—*Elements of Geometry and Trigonometry*. By B. SESTINI, S. J., author of "Analytical Geometry," &c., &c. 8vo., pp. 366. Baltimore: John Murphy & Co.

This appears to be one of the best elementary treatises of geometry that has yet been published. It is at least cordially commended by competent judges, and is used in institutions of the highest repute. The other mathematical productions of the author, which are quite popular, presage for this last labor of the learned professor equal success.

- 17.—*Household Mysteries*. A Romance of Southern Life. By LOUISE PETIT, of Virginia, author of "Light and Darkness." 12mo., pp. 300. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

The "sunny South" is rich in scenes of romance, and of late years her sons and daughters have enriched our light literature with many pleasing and acceptable pictures of social and domestic life. Among the number, "Household Mysteries" is, we are very confident, destined to enjoy a considerable share of deserved patronage.

- 18.—*Western Border Life; or What Fanny Hunter Saw and Heard in Kansas and Missouri.* 12mo., pp. 408. New York: Derby & Jackson.

The design of the author of this tale is to portray the social and moral life which "the border counties of Missouri are endeavoring to force upon the new territory, and the struggle in which it finds itself involved, upon its migration hither, with the principles of a society educated to industry and liberty." She has no sympathy with the "border ruffians," as they are termed. She claims that a long residence, as a member of a family in the frontier part of Michigan, made her acquainted with the actual condition of things much better than any stranger. Its publication is, no doubt, intended to aid in elevating the Republican candidate to the Presidency.

- 19.—*Louis Napoleon and the Bonaparte Family:* comprising a Memoir of their Connections, with Biographical Sketches of their principal Contemporaries, and a Summary of French History, including the Empire of Napoleon III. and the Russian War. By HENRY W. DE PUY, author of "Kossuth and his Generals," "Ethan Allen," &c. 12mo., pp. 457. New York: Miller, Orton & Mulligan.

We have in this volume, in an acceptable and convenient form, a memoir of the Bonaparte family, from the dawn of their celebrity to the present time, together with a sketch of French history and biographical notices of the most distinguished persons who have participated in the administration of French affairs during the same period. Mr. De Puy diligently availed himself, in the preparation of the work, of a great variety of the most authentic sources, and has succeeded in bringing within a comparatively small compass what is scattered over many volumes.

- 20.—*Victoria; or the World Overcome.* By CAROLINE CHESEBRO', author of "Philly and Kit," "Getting Along," "The Beautiful Gate," &c. New York: Derby & Jackson.

Miss Chesebro', in our judgment, though still quite young, has achieved an enviable reputation as a novelist of more than ordinary power. This last production is equal, if not superior to the best of her former efforts. Her works, like those of Irving, Willis, and a few others, will take rank in the standard literature of America.

- 21.—*Retribution. A Tale of the Passions.* By EMMA D. E. N. SOUTHWORTH. 12mo., pp. 305. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson.

The author of this book has won a wide reputation as a soul-stirring novelist. Her previous works, the "Lost Heiress," "Deserted Wife," "Wife's Victory," "Missing Bride," "India," &c., &c., have found a large "parish" of excited readers. "Retribution" will bear a favorable comparison with the best of her previously published romances.

- 22.—*Some Account of the Life of Spencer Houghton Cone, a Baptist Preacher in America.* 12mo., pp. 489. New York: Livermore & Rudd.

The reverend gentleman of whose life we have some account in this volume, was identified with many benevolent enterprises. Extracts from his letters, to which the author has had access, and from his public addresses, will furnish a key to his sentiments and feelings on important points. Mr. Cone was a native of Princeton, New Jersey, and died on the 30th of August, 1855, in his seventy-first year.

- 23.—*Memorials of Celebrated Characters.* By ALPHONSE DE LAMARTINE, author of the "History of the Girondists," &c. Vol. 3. 12mo., pp. 323. New York: Harper & Brothers.

The third and concluding volume opens with a dramatic portraiture of William Tell, the Swiss patriot. This is followed by memoirs of Madame De Sevigne, Milton, Auteur, and Bossuet. The London *Athenæum* pronounces the last-named the most masterly of the many which constitute a remarkable series.

24.—*Sketches and Adventures in Madeira, Portugal and the Andalusias of Spain.*

By the author of "Daniel Webster and his Contemporaries." 12mo., pp. 442.
New York: Harper & Brothers.

Unpretending and unambitious as this book professes to be, it is, nevertheless, one of the most graphic and interesting descriptions of the places visited by the author that we have read. Comparatively few Americans have visited Madeira, and if we except General Dix, who passed a winter on that island, and put forth without pretension, in a chaste, lucid and concise style, his impressions of the island, we have but few works of travel relating to the parts of Europe visited by the writer of the present work. These sketches and adventures seem to reflect Andalusia as it is, and delineate manners and daily occurrences by transcript from the author's own experience.

25.—*The Great American Battle*; or, the contest between Christianity and Political Romanism. By ANNA ELLA CARROLL, of Maryland. 12mo., pp. 365.
New York: Miller, Orton & Mulligan.

This book is evidently the offspring of the "Know-Nothingism" of the day, a political party so uncongenial to our free institutions, that it must pass away before the "second sober thought" of the American people. The work, however, abounds in noble and patriotic sentiments, and is written in an eloquent and flowing style, and illustrated with some fine engravings of several of our leading politicians. The fine head and manly face of Millard Fillmore forms the frontispiece, followed by portraits of A. J. Donelson, Erastus Brooks, K. Raynor and others of less note.

26.—*Modern Greece.* A Narrative of a Residence and Travels in that Country. With Observations on its Antiquities, Literature, Language, Politics, and Religion. By HENRY M. BAIRD, M. A. Illustrated by about Sixty Engravings. 18mo., pp. 380. New York: Harper & Brothers.

This interesting and valuable work is the result of rare opportunities of observation enjoyed by the author during a residence in Greece, and extensive travels in every part of the country. There has been nothing for years past on the subject so accurate in its delineation of national character, and so able and scholarly in the treatment of historical and scientific connections. Several chapters are devoted to the literature of modern Greece, and the manners, customs, politics, religious festivals, and state of popular education, have been made the topics of separate examination. It is copiously illustrated; forty of these illustrations have been executed after original sketches.

27.—*Wau-Bun*, the "Early Day" in the Northwest. By Mrs. JOHN H. KENZIE, of Chicago. With illustrations. 8vo., pp. 498. New York: Derby & Jackson.

This work partakes somewhat of the character of an autobiography, but contains a series of graphic sketches of many of the now great cities and towns of the Northwest. It dates back as early as 1830, when most of these cities were scarcely commenced. The writer's sympathies for the wrongs the aboriginal race have received at the hands of the whites are just and proper. The Northwest, which, in the memory of man, has grown to almost magic power and greatness, affords material in abundance for valuable contributions, such as this, to the literature of the Great Republic. "Wau-Bun" is, on the whole, a most interesting and valuable work.

28.—*The Heroes*; or Greek Fairy Tales for my Children. By Rev. C. KINGSLEY. With Illustrations by the author. 18mo., pp. 320. Boston: Ticknor & Fields.

"Fairy Tales," by the author of "Hypatia," "Amyas Leigh," &c., will not go a-begging for readers. Whether writing for the highest intellects or the opening reason of the young, Mr. Kingsley is equally happy and at home. There is deep meaning and true wisdom in whatever emanates from his exalted and progressive mind.

- 29.—*An Elementary Greek Grammar*: based on the latest German Edition of Kuhner. By CHARLES O'LEARY, A. M., Professor of Greek in Mount St. Mary's College, Maryland. 12mo., pp. 214. New York: D. & J. Sadlier.

This is an abridgement of the system of modern German grammars by a thorough and accomplished professor of the Greek language. The excellence of the system consists in making the students acquainted with known principles (not artificial rules) and laws. The advantages claimed by Mr. O'Leary over the common method are these:—1st. The forms and changes (of words) are traced to a few general principles, and thereby subjected to scientific classification. 2d. The multitude of details, ever embarrassing to the student, are compressed in a few comprehensive scales. 3d. What were regarded as exceptions and anomalies, are brought under the established laws of the language. 4th. Rules founded on a profound knowledge and scientific analysis of the language, and substituted for arbitrary formulas. To the best of our knowledge and belief, it is in every respect a meritorious elementary work.

- 30.—*The Life of Francis Marion*. By W. GILMORE SIMMS. Author of *Life of Capt. John Smith, History of South Carolina*, &c. 12mo., pp. 347. New York: Derby & Jackson.

This volume records the facts in the life of one of the most distinguished patriots and heroes of the American Revolution,—the brave and virtuous Marion, the model citizen soldier, the gallant son of Carolina, whose brilliant exploits, wild adventures, and severe privations, have employed the pen of the poet and the pencil of the painter, to glorify them and give them renown. These pages undoubtedly embody the best and fullest account of Marion that has been written, without the extravagances of Weems, who, as our author remarks, had rather loose notions of the privileges of the biographer. The book is written in the usual excellent style of the author, and we commend it to every American.

- 31.—*Perversion*: or, the Causes and Consequences of Infidelity: a tale for the times. By Rev. W. S. CONYBEARE, M. A., author of "*Life and Epistles of St. Paul*." 12mo., pp. 495. New York: Wiley & Halsted.

The causes and consequences of infidelity are described by the author of this tale as different in different characters. In the "deliberately wicked," (according to Mr. C.) infidelity originates in a depraved will, eager to cast off moral restraint. In better natures it is occasioned by the inconsistency, extravagance or hypocrisy of those who "profess and call themselves Christians;" sometimes by the doubts of a skeptical understanding, and the difficulties inherent in the substance or the documents of what the author regards the Christian revelation. The consequences which result from unbelief are "moral deterioration, and the loss of happiness and peace." The object of the author in the present work is to illustrate these statements.

- 32.—*English Traits*. By RALPH WALDO EMERSON. 12mo., pp. 312. Boston: Phillips, Sampson & Co.

Mr. Emerson is, beyond all question, one of the most original thinkers and writers of the day. The present work is, to use a common phrase, "Emersonian" from beginning to end. Philosophical and suggestive, "*English Traits*" are analyzed with the pen and power of a master mind. The chapter on "wealth," in which he declares there is no country in which so absolute a homage is paid to wealth as in England, is searching, truthful, and just. It is the book of the season.

- 33.—"*The Modern Whitfield*." The Rev. C. H. Spurgeon, of London, his Sermons. With an Introduction and Sketch of his Life. By E. L. MAGOON, D. D. 12mo., pp. 320.

We have in this volume a collection of fifteen sermons, which fell from the lips, and no doubt moved the heart of this young and eccentric preacher. The introduction, from the pen of the eloquent Magoon, embodying a memoir of the preacher, is to us the most interesting part of the book.

- 34.—*A Lady's Second Journey Round the World.* By IDA PFEIFFER, author of the "Lady's Journey Round the World." 12mo., pp. 500. New York: Harper & Brothers.

Madame Pfeiffer is probably the most extensive lady traveler of ancient or modern times—that is, there is not on record any account of a woman who has traveled twice round the world, besides visiting the interior of many countries. In this, her second voyage, she starts from London to the Cape of Good Hope, Borneo, Java, Sumatra, Celebres, Ceram, the Moluccas, &c., California, Panama, Peru, Equador, and the United States. To those who are fond of woman's gossip, shrewd observation, and quick perception of things, this volume will be a treat.

- 35.—*Experimental Researches on the Food of Animals and the Fattening of Cattle.* With Remarks on the Food of Man. By ROBERT DUNDAS THOMPSON, M. D., Lecturer on Practical Chemistry in the University of Glasgow. From the last London Edition. 12mo., pp. 172. New York: C. M. Saxton & Co.

This excellent treatise is based on an extensive series of experiments, made at the instance of the British government. The original object of that inquiry was to determine the relative influence of barley and malt in feeding cattle; but as the opportunity seemed a favorable one for investigating some scientific problems of great importance to physiology, and of extreme value in the physical management of man and animals, advantage was taken of it to extend the experiments so as to include those objects. Mr. Saxton is doing much good by reproducing in this country works of such practical value.

- 36.—*Lays of Ancient Rome, with Ivry and the Armada.* By THOMAS BABINGTON MACAULAY. 12mo., pp. 181. Boston and Cambridge: James Monroe & Co.

Early Roman History has, perhaps, a foundation only, or in little else, than poetry. In these lays the object appears to be to transform some portions of that early history back into the poetry out of which they were made. In them the author speaks not as himself, but in the person of ancient minstrels. The lays exhibit skill and power in construction, and are infused with the true spirit of the themes. Mr. Macaulay is a man of varied abilities; an orator, a great historian, and a respectable poet. In addition to the lays this volume contains a poem entitled, "Ivry: a song of the Huguenots," and "The Armada."

- 37.—*Discourses on Special Occasions; and miscellaneous papers.* By C. VAN SANTVOORD. 12mo., pp. 456. New York: M. W. Dodd.

The reverend author delivered the discourses embodied in this volume, in the course of a ministry to the Reformed Dutch Church, of Saugerties, New York, between the years 1848 and 1854. The miscellaneous papers have mostly been contributed to various periodicals. The topics treated of are varied, and generally of an interesting character, and are handled with much ability. The discourses on Adams, Clay and Webster, the paper on "Samuel Johnson and Daniel Webster," in which the writer marks a few of the points in which these eminent men appear to resemble one another, and other of the subjects of the book should not be confined to a narrow circle of readers.

- 38.—*Lectures on the Life, Genius, and Insanity of Cowper.* By GEORGE B. CHEEVER, D. D., author of "Lectures on the Pilgrim's Progress," "Power of the World to Come," "Wanderings of a Pilgrim," &c. 12mo., pp. 415. New York: Carter & Brothers.

Dr. Cheever thinks that Southey, in his memoir, has done the poet great injustice in what he omits, as well as in some things ungenerously set down. The fact is the theologies of Cheever and Southey differ widely. One of the main purposes of this volume has been to illustrate more fully the religious experience of Cowper, and to trace the causes and the manner of his religious gloom. We think they are to be found in the gloomy, Calvinistic theology he embraced. Mr. Cheever handles his subject with marked ability, and sheds new light upon the peculiarities of the man and the poet.